QUESTIONING 'SUSTAINABILITY' OF FOREST LANDS ALLOCATED AND USED FOR TOURISM IN TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

QUESTIONING 'SUSTAINABILITY' OF FOREST LANDS ALLOCATED AND USED FOR TOURISM IN TURKEY

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Turkey is one of the leading tourism countries of the world. Tourism contributes to not only national economy but also regional development. Turkey has adhered to several international conventions regarding economic, socio-cultural and environmental sustainability. Nonetheless, since the onset of the 1980s, Tourism Encouragement Law's main policies, along with the globalization and privatization, have developed mass tourism in Turkey, and led to continuous damage on the natural environment. Over the last thirty years, forest lands along the Mediterranean and Aegean coasts have been eradicated and over-exploited to a greater degree through the development of large-scale, inward-oriented and exclusive tourism investments, and second-home developments.

This thesis investigates the extent to which forest lands in Turkey are allocated regarding 'sustainability' measures. It first makes a literature review on the notions of 'sustainability', 'sustainable development', 'sustainable forest management' and 'sustainable tourism planning', and examines institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal dimensions of tourism planning on forest lands in Canada and Australia, widely accepted with their advanced practices in the world to draw a theoretical framework and identify main components of 'sustainability'. Second, it analyzes how far

institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal structures in Turkey have accommodated the sustainability approach, while allocating forest lands to tourism. Then, it examines the recent development story of Belek Tourism Center (BTC) in Antalya by assessing 'economic', 'socio-cultural' and 'environmental' sustainability indicators. In the final part, the thesis underlines the major shortcomings and seeks to identify main policies for 'sustainable' allocation and use of forests for tourism in Turkey.

KEYWORDS: Sustainability, Forest Management, Tourism Planning, Land Allocation

ÖZ

TÜRKİYE'DE TURİZM AMAÇLI TAHSİS EDİLEN VE KULLANILAN ORMAN ARAZİLERİNİN 'SÜRDÜRÜLEBİLİRLİK' SORUNU

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Türkiye, turizm alanında lider ülkelerden biridir. Turizm yalnızca ülke ekonomisine değil, aynı zamanda bölgesel gelişmeye de katkılarda bulunmaktadır. Türkiye, ekonomik, sosyo-kültürel ve çevresel sürdürülebilirlik konularında birçok uluslararası sözleşmeye taraf olmuştur. Buna rağmen, 1980'lerin başından itibaren, küreselleşme ve özelleştirmeye paralel olarak, Turizm Teşvik Kanunu'nun temel politikaları, Türkiye'de kitle turizmini geliştirmiş ve doğal çevreyi sürekli tahrip etmiştir. Geçtiğimiz 30 yıl boyunca, Akdeniz ve Ege kıyılarındaki orman arazileri, büyük ölçekli, kendi içine kapalı ve ayrıcalıklı turizm yatırımlarının gelişimi ve ikinci konut gelişimleri sonucunda, önemli ölçüde zarar görmüş ve yok edilmiştir.

Bu tez, Türkiye'de orman arazilerinin tahsisinde 'sürdürülebilirlik' ölçütlerinin ne kadar göz önüne alındığını incelemektedir. Öncelikle 'sürdürülebilirlik', 'sürdürülebilir gelişme', 'sürdürülebilir orman yönetimi' ve 'sürdürülebilir turizm planlaması' kavramlarını inceleyen bir yazın taraması yapmakta; orman arazilerinde turizm planlaması konusunda ileri olarak kabul edilen Kanada ve Avustralya'daki kurumsal, katılım, politika ve yasal boyutları inceleyerek, kuramsal bir çerçeve çizmeye çalışmakta ve 'sürdürülebilirlik' kavramının temel bileşenlerini belirlemektedir. Araştırmanın ikinci bölümünde, Türkiye'de turizme tahsis edilen

orman alanlarının kurumsal, katılım, politika ve yasal boyutları, ‘sürdürülebilirlik’ ölçütlerine bağlı olarak incelemektedir. Tezin üçüncü bölümünde, Antalya’daki Belek Turizm Merkezi’nin (BTM) gelişimi, sürdürülebilirliğin ‘ekonomik’, ‘sosyo-kültürel’ ve ‘çevresel’ boyutları göz önüne alınarak incelenmektedir. Bu tezin son bölümünde, Türkiye’deki orman arazilerinin turizm amaçlı tahsisi ve kullanımında ‘sürdürülebilirlik’ ölçütleri açısından başlıca eksiklikler vurgulanmakta ve sorunun çözümü için temel politika önerileri belirlenmeye çalışılmaktadır.

ANAHTAR KELİMELER: Sürdürülebilirlik, Orman Yönetimi, Turizm Planlaması, Arazi Tahsisi

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General

EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
IUCN	International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (now known as the The World Conservation Union)
LAC	Level of Acceptable Change
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NPO	Not-for-Profit Organization / Non-Profit Organization
UN	United Nations
UNCED	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (also known as Earth Summit)
UNCHE	United Nations Conference on the Human Environment
WB	World Bank
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development

Canada

BC	British Columbia
BCWF	British Columbia Wildlife Federation
COTA	The Council of Tourism Associations
EC	Environment Canada
FMCBC	The Federation of Mountain Clubs of British Columbia
IC	Industry Canada
ILMB	Integrated Land Management Bureau (of MOAL)
LRMP	Land and Resource Management Plan (by ILMB)
MOAL	Ministry of Agriculture and Lands
MOE	Ministry of Environment
MOFR	Ministry of Forests and Range
MOTCA	Ministry of Tourism, Culture and the Arts
NTS	National Tourism Strategy (by IC)

QD	Quebec Declaration (by IC)
TAP	Tourism Action Plan (by MOTCA)
TBC	Tourism British Columbia (of MOTCA)

Australia

DAFF	Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry
DEWHA	Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts
DRET	Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
IGAE	Inter-Governmental Agreement on the Environment (by DEWHA)
NFPS	National Forest Policy Statement (by DAFF)
NRW	Department of Natural Resources and Water
NSESD	National Strategy for Ecologically Sustainable Development (by DEWHA)
PMP	Property Management Plan (by NRW)
QLD	Queensland
QPWS	Queensland Parks and Wildlife Service (of EPA)
QTS	Queensland Tourism Strategy (by TRDI)
RFA	Regional Forest Agreement (by DAFF)
TIPA	Tourism in Protected Areas Initiative (of QPWS)
TQ	Tourism Queensland (of TRDI)
TRDI	Department of Tourism, Regional Development and Industry

Turkey

BTC	Belek Tourism Center
BTIA	Belek Tourism Investors Association
CC	Constitutional Court
CTCDR	Culture and Tourism Conservation and Development Region
GDF	General Directorate of Forests (of MEF)
GDIE	General Directorate of Investments and Establishments (of MCT)
GDNE	General Directorate of National Estate (of MF)
MCT	Ministry of Culture and Tourism

MEF	Ministry of Environment and Forestry
MF	Ministry of Finance
OG	Official Gazette
PCS	Presidency of Council of State
RT	Republic of Turkey
SPO	State Planning Organization
TC	Tourism Center
TTIA	Turkish Tourism Investors Association

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Definition of the research problem

The mutual and complex relationship between tourism and environment has become more and more important. Environment holds the main natural and cultural attractions of tourist places. The presence of the biodiversity, wild-life and exoticism in protected areas, natural reserves, and forest eco-system are of great importance for tourism, especially for tourists from industrialized countries where people have fewer experiences with nature (Gössling and Hall, 2006). As such, there are a number of reasons for the recent growing interest in forest tourism. Increasing will of people living in overcrowded, busy and stressful cities towards spending time in peaceful nature, the rising attractiveness of forests for recreation through tourism facilities, their educative, spiritual and even religious roles in human life, the economic value generated in rural areas through forest tourism are some of these reasons which have made forest tourism more and more important (Gössling and Hickler, 2006).

Although environment in general (and forest in specific) provides great opportunities for tourism, it is generally negatively influenced by all components of tourism developments, such as transportation, accommodation, food services and retail activities (Alavalapati and Adamowicz, 2000). As such, forest tourism may cause a number of problems due to the heavy use of forests, such as the disturbance of wildlife, trampling of vegetation, forest fires, erosion of soil and impacts of cars through off-road driving and emissions of different trace gases (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). Consequently, forest tourism may disturb the ecological balance that the nature worked out through ages. In the long-term, tourism developments may result in loss of biodiversity and forest ecosystems, emission of greenhouse gases,

resource depletion, and thereby ultimately cause global environmental damage (Gössling and Hall, 2006). In the medium term, all these negative impacts that may also threaten the continuity of tourism, suggest that there should be a more satisfactory and sustainable management of the complex relation between environment and tourism in general, forest and tourism in specific (Gössling and Hickler, 2006).

The relationship between tourism and environment has been the concern of scientific research since the 1960s and the 1970s especially with the rise of the green movement that released environmental impacts of tourism, as well as the promotion of the notion of 'sustainability' particularly under the leadership of the United Nations (Gössling and Hall, 2006; Gupta and Yunus, 2004). Since then, a wide range of impact assessment tools, as well as policy instruments seeking to find a balance between conservation and development have been developed (Gössling and Hall, 2006). The governments of some countries, such as Canada, Australia, the UK, Holland, and the Scandinavian countries, have been using these tools and instruments, and they have been strictly following the policies and policy changes to create sustainable natural and urban environments.

Turkey acquires a significant amount of natural reserves, protected areas and forests. The allocation and use of forest lands for the purpose of tourism are not new notions in Turkey. Along with the privatization and globalization policies, the tension between tourism development and environment started in the beginning of the 1980s when the development of mass tourism that was adopted as a national strategy by the Tourism Encouragement Law. Since then, the coastal resorts have witnessed a rapid and uncontrolled tourism and urban developments, as well as the considerable environmental damage along the Mediterranean and Aegean coasts (Gündüz, 2007). Over the last three decades, forest lands have become such natural resources that have been eradicated and over-exploited to a greater extent in Turkey through the development of large tourism facilities for accommodation, recreation and sports, second-home and daily-visitor recreation activities. Although the development and sustainability of the tourism sector have been mainly relied on the natural values and

assets, the policy and practice in Turkey over the last thirty years have not indicated that there is sufficient concern on natural environment, specifically public forest lands.

1.2 Scope and objectives of the study, and research question

The main concern of this thesis is to study the tourism-oriented allocation and use of public forest lands in Turkey in relation to 'sustainability' measures. The key research question of this thesis is: How far forest lands have been allocated to and used for the purpose of tourism regarding 'sustainability' approach in Turkey. To answer this question, the thesis first seeks to understand the mutual and complex relationship between tourism and environment in general, and tourism and forest in specific regarding the notion of 'sustainability'. As mentioned above, forests hold the main natural and cultural attractions of tourist places, while, at the same time, they are negatively affected by tourism development. Hence, sustainability becomes a very important notion which may reconcile the tension between tourism development and forest (or nature) protection. Thus, this thesis, making a literature review on the terms of 'sustainability', 'sustainable development', 'sustainable forest management', and 'sustainable tourism planning', aims to provide a wider understanding of the relationship between 'sustainability', 'tourism development' and 'forest protection'. The thesis also investigates two countries, Canada and Australia, which are highly advanced in sustainable forest management and sustainable tourism planning on forest lands, to identify 'sustainability measures' for the allocation and use of the forest lands for the purpose of tourism. By studying institutional organizations, stakeholders, their sustainable tourism and environment strategy in general and forest strategy in particular, and the legislative regulations in both countries, it seeks to find out the crucial common strategies, components and mechanisms for 'sustainable tourism planning' on forest lands.

Second, to answer the research question, the thesis focuses on Turkey, and examines the institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal dimensions of the allocation of forest lands for tourism investments in Turkey in relation to 'sustainability'. More

specifically, it seeks to investigate how far the institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal structures in Turkey have accommodated the sustainability approach while allocating and using forest lands for tourism purposes. And then, the thesis, focusing on the recent development story of Belek Tourism Center (BTC) in Antalya, seeks to assess how far the public forest lands have been allocated to and used for the purpose of tourism regarding 'economic', 'socio-cultural' and 'environmental' sustainability indicators. Showing the positive and negative sides of the transformation of a forest area to a tourism center, the thesis aims to open up a discussion on which 'sustainability' measures should be taken to allocate and use forest lands for the purpose of tourism in Turkey.

1.3 Research methodology

This thesis seeks to answer the question of how far public forest lands in Turkey are allocated and used regarding 'sustainability' measures. To answer this question, this study first investigates the notions of 'sustainability', 'sustainable development', 'sustainable forest management' and 'sustainable tourism planning'. It also examines institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal dimensions of tourism planning on forest lands in Canada and Australia, which are two countries widely accepted as advanced with their practices. Making an extensive literature review, this thesis seeks to draw a theoretical framework and identifies the criteria for 'sustainable tourism planning' on forest lands.

In the second part of the investigation, the thesis examines the extent to which the institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal dimensions of tourism planning on forest lands have integrated the notion and components of 'sustainability' in Turkey. Thus, the advantageous and disadvantageous sides of Turkey are identified.

In the third part of the investigation, the case of Belek in Antalya is investigated to have an in-depth view about the problems generated at the local level in the process of allocating and using the public forest lands for the purpose of tourism. BTC, as a case study, is important because Belek was previously covered with a forest

developed within 26 years, and it is of great environmental importance and value. In this sense, it illustrates the transformation of a small moderate forest village into a tourism center through the central government decisions and the private sector investments without the involvement of local communities. In this sense, it is a very important example for opening up state-owned forest lands to private investments.

This research uses quantitative and qualitative data from written reports, books, articles, researches, formal studies of the same site under study, articles appearing in the media and websites related to the sustainability, sustainable development, sustainable forest management and sustainable tourism planning.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis, including the introductory chapter, consists of five chapters. Chapter 2 aims to investigate the mutual and complex relationship between tourism and forests regarding the notion of 'sustainability' that has become more and more important. This chapter first introduces the concepts of 'sustainability' and 'sustainable development'; second, it examines what sustainable forest management is, and then it focuses on the relation between environment and tourism. Fourth, it investigates tourism developments in forest lands, and fifth sustainable tourism planning. In the sixth section, the chapter examines the best practices around the world; especially in Canada and Australia, two countries advanced in sustainable tourism planning. By studying the two countries regarding their institutional organizations, and stakeholders, their sustainable tourism and environment strategy in general and forest strategy in particular, and their legislative regulations, it seeks to find out the crucial common strategies, components and mechanisms for 'sustainable tourism planning'.

Chapter 3 aims to examine the institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal dimensions of the allocation of forest lands for tourism investments in Turkey in relation to 'sustainability'. More specifically, it seeks to investigate how far the institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal structures in Turkey have accommodated the sustainability approach while allocating and using forest lands for tourism purposes.

The chapter includes four sections, in parallel to the countries examined in Chapter 2. In the first two sections, it examines the public agencies and other stakeholders participating in the decision-making processes of tourism and environment sectors in Turkey. Then, the third section explores the sustainable tourism and environment strategies with a special emphasis on forest lands in Turkey. The fourth section studies the related legal framework in Turkey, and examines how far the laws in force have contained the sustainability measures. In the final section, the findings of the chapter are summarized.

Chapter 4 is dedicated to the case study. It focuses on Belek Tourism Center (BTC) in Antalya, a previous forest site along the Mediterranean coast of Turkey which was opened up to the development of hotels and golf courses, following the decisions of the central government. The chapter examines whether 'sustainability' measures have been taken while allocating forest lands for the purpose of tourism in Belek; and analyzes positive and negative effects of such a top-down development regarding the environmental, economic and socio-cultural sustainability. The first section introduces the province of Antalya and summarizes its contribution to national tourism. The second section describes the urban development in BTC. The next section assesses the success and effectiveness of the transformation of forest lands into a tourism center in terms of economic, socio-cultural and environmental sustainability. Then, the last section represents a brief discussion of the findings.

Chapter 5 concludes the thesis. It provides an overview of the research by summarizing the initial focus of the research, the research question and propositions, and research methodology. Second, it summarizes the findings of the research. At the end, it makes a discussion on 'sustainability' measures that should be taken to allocate and use forest lands for the purpose of tourism in Turkey.

In the final part, there are four appendices, one of which is on non-legally binding authoritative statement of principles for a global consensus on the management, conservation and sustainable development of all types of forests. The second appendix includes the data related to public land allocation announcements in

Antalya BTC, and the third consists of the data on the public land allocations in Antalya BTC. The last appendix provides a glossary listing the terms and definitions used in the manuscript in both English and Turkish to ease the understanding of the text and reduce the possible misunderstandings that might be caused by the translation of the terms and notions from Turkish to English, or vice versa.

CHAPTER 2

SUSTAINABILITY AND TOURISM-ORIENTED ALLOCATION OF FOREST LANDS IN THE WORLD

Nowadays, the mutual and complex relationship between tourism and forests has become more and more important. Forests hold the main natural and cultural attractions of tourist places, while, at the same time, it is negatively affected by tourism development. This chapter is set up to investigate this relation especially regarding 'sustainability'. It first introduces the concepts of 'sustainability' and 'sustainable development'; second, it examines what sustainable forest management is, and then it focuses on the relation between environment and tourism. Fourth, it investigates tourism developments in forest lands, and fifth sustainable tourism planning. In the sixth section, the chapter examines the best practices around the world; especially in Canada and Australia, two countries advanced in sustainable tourism planning. By studying the two countries regarding their institutional organizations, and stakeholders, their sustainable tourism and environment strategy in general and forest stategy in particular, and their legislative regulations, it seeks to find out the crucial common strategies, components and mechanisms for 'sustainable tourism planning'.

2.1 The concepts of 'sustainability' and 'sustainable development'

The concept of 'sustainability', as an environmental issue, first started to be discussed in the early-1970s under the leadership of the United Nations (UN). The first mega-event, UN Conference on the Human Environment (UNCHE), which attracted the world attention to the issue, was held in Stockholm between 5-16 June 1972. The Conference did not only bring developed and developing countries together to discuss the future of the global environment, but also established the

foundation for addressing environmental problems in a global context, and initiated a process of negotiating international conventions within the UN framework (Gupta and Yunus, 2004). In 1980, International Union for the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) whose focus was on the physical environment rather than on social environment firstly mentioned the term 'sustainable development' (Atkinson, 2000). This was followed by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), which prepared the Brundtland Report in 1987, and defined 'sustainable development' as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (Atkinson, 2000). In this way, the concept of the sustainable development started to be regarded as a wider concept which encompassed not only environmental issues, but also social and economic issues. In the early-1990s, the UN organised another world-wide conference, UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) "Earth Summit" in Rio de Janeiro (3-14 June 1992). The Conference became another important milestone in the promotion of the idea of 'sustainable development', as it resulted both in proposing three international agreements–on forests, climate change and biodiversity–and in tabling an "agenda for sustainable development in the 21st century", entitled Agenda 21 (Atkinson, 2000). The third UN conference, World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD), was organised in Johannesburg on 26 August - 4 September 2002. With all these conferences, the UN has not only become a key international agency for global environmental issues, but it has also managed to raise significantly the world attention and concern to the environmental sustainability issues.

As pointed out by Atkinson (2000), those promoting the concept of sustainable development in the 1980s had a rather **"**environmentalist**"** approach to the issue. What IUCN and the Brundtland Commission meant by "sustainable development", however, was motivated by the worry that non-renewable resources–such as fossil fuels and minerals–which are being used to support the development process, will at some stage in the foreseeable future no longer be available (Atkinson, 2000). Worse yet, many renewable resources such as forests and fisheries are being overexploited to such an extent that they, too, may be exhausted in the foreseeable future

(Atkinson, 2000). The Bruntland definition of 'sustainable development' is concise, and covers the requirement to satisfy intergenerational needs, but is subject to widely different interpretations (Welsh, 2002). For example, some would say that it fails to include limits within which society must operate (Welsh, 2002). Hence, alternative definitions to overcome this limitation have been developed in the recent years. For example, "Forum for the Future", a non-governmental organization (NGO), defined sustainable development as: "a dynamic process, which enables all people to realise their potential and to improve their quality of life in ways which simultaneously protect and enhance the Earth's life support systems" (Welsh, 2002). The definition does not only emphasise the importance of social justice, but also it is intended to be a balanced environmental, social and economic project with the objective of optimising human wellbeing (Welsh, 2002). A further definition that has become frequently used in more recent years is the so-called 'triple bottom line sustainability', which covers three dimensions: economic-social-environment. (**Figure 1**) The intent behind this sparse definition is that governments and businesses should strive to achieve a balance between economic and social development whilst protecting the environment (Welsh, 2002). For businesses to be sustainable, they must generate cash and make a profit by satisfying the needs of customers (Welsh, 2002). In doing so, they provide jobs (hence, injecting money into the local economy), pay taxes (for social programmes), and make a satisfactory return on capital employed for the shareholders, whilst operating in a socially responsible manner, supporting local communities and protecting the environment (Welsh, 2002). Despite its wide-coverage, a weakness of this definition is that it provides no indication of the weighting between the three bottom lines and any recognition of limits (Welsh, 2002).

Closely related to the 'triple bottom line' definition is the concept of 'eco-efficiency' defined by the World Business Council for Sustainable Development as "the delivery of competitively priced goods and services which satisfy human needs and bring quality of life, while progressively reducing ecological impacts and resource

intensity throughout the life cycle, to a level at least in line with the Earth's estimated carrying capacity[1]" (Welsh, 2002).

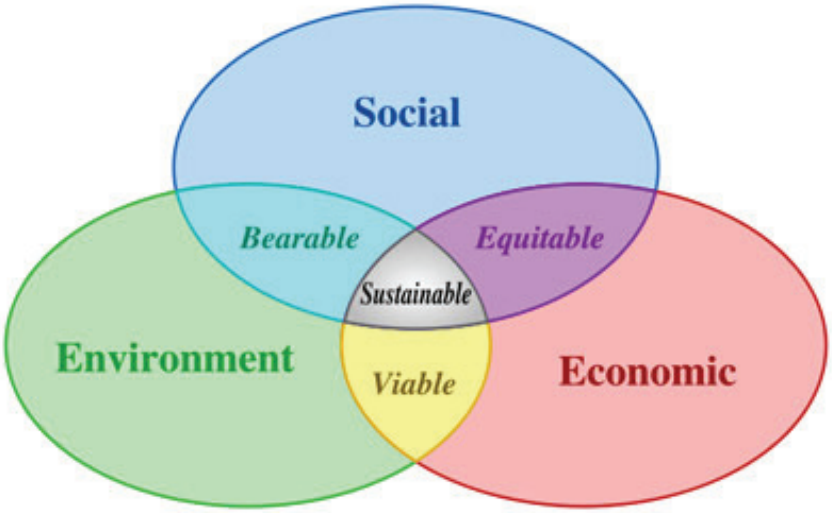


Figure 1 Triple-Bottom-Line Sustainability
Source: http://www1.indstate.edu/facilities/sustainability

Therefore, the three-decade long journey from Stockholm to Johannesburg began with the recognition of negative influences of human activities on environment, and was followed by a paradigm that sees environment and development inextricably linked (Gupta and Yunus, 2004). While national and international discussions still keep incubating about what the key concerns to be addressed globally should be for sustainable development, some experts and organizations have already stressed the importance of developing strategy suggestions about poverty eradication and sustainable livelihood, financial resources for environmental improvement, technology transfer, and production and consumption patterns (Gupta and Yunus, 2004). Hence, it is of the utmost need to review and audit the efforts towards sustainable development objectives at the global level so as to discuss and evolve a more effective strategy to make this world safer not only for our future generations but for all the natural life forms to be in ecological harmony (Gupta and Yunus,

[1] The number of individuals who can be supported in a given area within natural resource limits, and without degrading the natural social, cultural and economic environment for present and future generations.

2004). In this sense, the development of strategies looking for a balance between economic and social development, while protecting the environment is of great importance (Welsh, 2002). The following section will examine the issue of sustainability regarding forest lands and examines the issue of sustainable forest management.

2.2 Sustainable forest management

Globally, forest lands, which are categorised as renewable resources, have been overexploited to a greater extent for a long while, and the trend of decline in the forest lands over the recent years indicates that they are under the risk of being exhausted in the foreseeable future (Atkinson, 2000). The main factors behind this decline are the pressures of urban and agricultural developments which have turned the forest lands into urban, arable and pasture lands (**Figures 2 and 3**). For this reason, especially deforestation has been a greater concern for the world, and forest ecosystems have been more often the subject of the concept of sustainability in recent years. In this sense, sustainable forest management has become more important than ever before.

In the past, the focus of forest management was frequently on sustaining the production of wood and timber (Castaneda, 2000). More recently, however, the concept of 'sustainable forest management' has been broadened to include economic, environmental, social and cultural dimensions (Castaneda, 2000). The first initiative which introduced this comprehensive understanding into the forest management is one of the three UNCED agreements mentioned in the previous section, called "Non-legally Binding Authoritative Statement of Principles for a Global Consensus on the Management, Conservation and Sustainable Development of All Types of Forests", also informally known as "the Forest Principles", the Agreement which set up the first principles about sustainable forest management. The whole text of the Forest Principles is given in **Appendix A**.

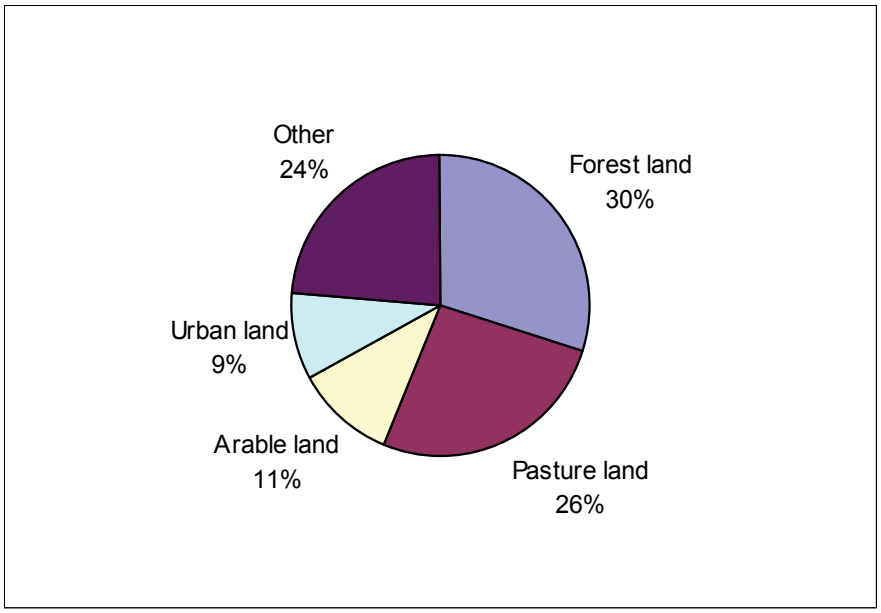


Figure 2 Land Area on Earth
Source: Pimentel et al., 1999, p.14

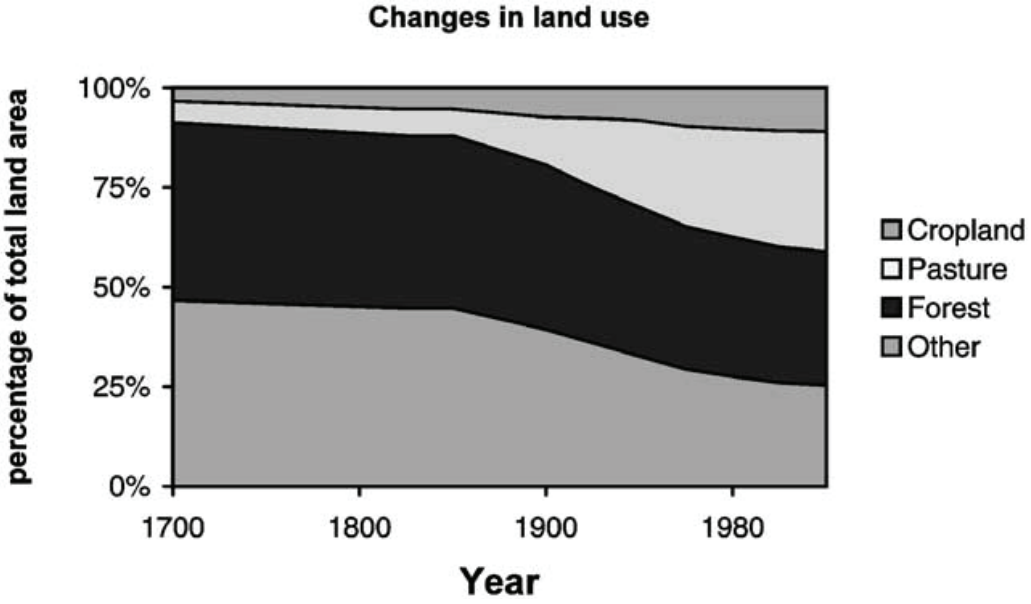


Figure 3 Estimated Changes in Land Use from 1700 to 1995
Source: Lambin et al., 2001, p.262

Within the framework of a number of international processes, initiated by following UNCED, participating countries have defined criteria against which sustainability can be judged, and have specified corresponding indicators which help in monitoring

the effects of forest management interventions over time (Castaneda, 2000). Criteria and indicators are today commonly recognized as appropriate tools for defining, assessing and monitoring progress towards sustainable forest management (Castaneda, 2000). Efforts towards streamlining action at the global level have included the Food and Agriculture organization of the UN (FAO) and International Tropical Timber Organization (ITTO) Expert Meeting on the Harmonization of Criteria and Indicators for Sustainable Forest Management held in Rome in February 1995, and the Intergovernmental Seminar on Criteria and Indicators organized by the Government of Finland in Helsinki in August 1996 and supported by FAO (Castaneda, 2000). From these events has emerged a set of seven globally agreed national level criteria –although the wording may differ from process to process– which serves as the framework for all ongoing international processes (Castaneda, 2000):

1. **Extent of forest resources:** The theme expresses an overall desire to have adequate forest cover and stocking, including trees outside forests, to support the social, economic and environmental dimensions of forestry. For example, the existence and extent of specific forest types are important as a basis for conservation efforts. The theme encompasses ambitions to reduce deforestation and to restore and rehabilitate degraded forest landscapes. It also includes the important function of forests and trees outside forests to store carbon and thereby contribute to moderating the global climate.
2. **Biological diversity:** The theme concerns the conservation and management of biological diversity at ecosystem (landscape), species and genetic levels. Such conservation, including the protection of areas with fragile ecosystems, ensures that diversity of life is maintained, and provides opportunities to develop new products in the future, including medicines. Genetic improvement is also a means of increasing forest productivity, for example to ensure high wood production levels in intensively managed forests.
3. **Forest health and vitality:** Forests need to be managed so that the risks and impacts of unwanted disturbances are minimized, including wildfires, airborne pollution, storm felling, invasive species, pests, diseases and insects. Such disturbances may impact social and economic as well as environmental dimensions of forestry.
4. **Productive functions of forest resources:** Forests and trees outside forests provide a wide range of wood and non-wood forest products. This theme expresses the ambition to maintain an ample and valuable supply of primary forest products, while at the same time ensuring that

production and harvesting are sustainable and do not compromise the management options of future generations.

5. **Protective functions of forest resources:** The theme addresses the role of forests and trees outside forests in moderating soil, hydrological and aquatic systems, maintaining clean water (including healthy fish populations) and reducing the risks and impacts of floods, avalanches, erosion and drought. Protective functions of forest resources also contribute to ecosystem conservation efforts and have strong cross-sectoral aspects, because the benefits to agriculture and rural livelihoods are high.
6. **Socio-economic functions:** The theme covers the contributions of forest resources to the overall economy, for example through employment, values generated through processing and marketing of forest products, and energy, trade and investment in the forest sector. It also addresses the important forest function of hosting and protecting sites and landscapes of high cultural, spiritual or recreational value, and thus includes aspects of land tenure, indigenous and community management systems, and traditional knowledge.
7. **Legal, policy and institutional framework:** The theme includes the legal, policy and institutional arrangements necessary to support the above six themes, including participatory decision-making, governance and law enforcement, and monitoring and assessment of progress. It also involves broader societal aspects, including fair and equitable use of forest resources, scientific research and education, infrastructure arrangements to support the forest sector, transfer of technology, capacity-building, and public information and communication. (FAO, 2006)

Criteria and indicators at the national level may be used by decision-makers to guide countrywide policies, regulations and legislation in support of sustainable forest management (Castaneda, 2000). Trends in indicators will show whether a country is moving towards, or away from, sustainability (Castaneda, 2000).

Over the past several years, the importance placed on the development and implementation of criteria and indicators for sustainable forest management by countries resulted in the development of nine separate but conceptually linked initiatives (Castaneda, 2000) **(Table 1)**.

Table 1 International Initiatives and Processes on Criteria and Indicators

Initiative/process	**Number of countries involved**	**Region (vegetation zone/geographic area)**
MCPFE (Pan-European Process)	41 [a)]	European boreal and temperate forests
Montreal Process	12 [b)]	Temperate forests in America, Asia, Pacific
ITTO	31 [c)]	Tropical natural forests
Tarapoto Proposal	8 [d)]	Amazon Basin
African Timber Organization	14 [e)]	Tropical forests of Africa
African Dry-Zone Process	30 [f)]	Sub-Saharan Africa
Near East Process	30 [g)]	Near East
Dry Forest Asia Initiative	9 [h)]	South Asia and Mongolia, China, Myanmar, Thailand
Lepaterique Process	7 [i)]	Central America
Total number of countries involved	149	

a) Russia is also under the Montreal Process and Turkey is also under the Near East Process.
b) China is also under the Dry Forest Asia Initiative
c) Producing member countries; total number of members is 57.
d) All countries are also ITTO producing member countries.
e) In the ATO Process 9 countries are ITTO Producing Member Countries and 3 countries belong to Africa Dry Zone: Angola (Dry Zone Africa), Cameroon (ITTO), Central African Republic (ITTO), Congo (ITTO), Côte d'Ivoire (ITTO), Democratic Republic of Congo (ITTO and Dry Zone Africa), Equatorial Guinea, Gabon (ITTO), Ghana (ITTO), Liberia (ITTO), Nigeria, Sao Tome et Principe, Tanzania (Dry Zone Africa) and Togo (ITTO).
f) Four countries belong to the Near East Process as well.
g) Four countries are also African Dry-Zone process members (Djibouti, Mauritania, Somalia and Sudan), one is MCPFE member (Turkey) and one is ITTO consuming member country (Egypt).
h) Five countries are also ITTO members, three producing member (India, Myanmar and Thailand) and two consuming member countries (China and Nepal); China is also Montreal Process member.
i) Three countries are also ITTO producing member countries (Guatemala, Honduras and Panama).

Source: Simula, 2003

Since the International Tropical Timber Organization (ITTO) undertook its pioneering work in the 1990s to develop criteria and indicators for sustainable management of natural tropical forests, several similar international and regional initiatives have emerged (Simula, 2003) **(Table 1) (Figure 4)**. The various parallel initiatives worked largely independent from each other and it was soon realized that a certain degree of harmonization as well as improved communication and coordination between them could be beneficial (Simula, 2003). The nine on-going international regional C&I initiatives and processes are at different levels of maturity (Simula, 2003). Three processes (MCPFE, Montreal and ITTO) have a track record

in putting the concept into practice while elsewhere field level achievements have been more modest (Simula, 2003). About 150 countries are members of one or more processes which suggests that C&I has potential to become one of the most widely spread forest policy instrument in the world (Simula, 2003). ITTO has had a pioneering role both in developing and implementing criteria and indicators (Simula, 2003). ITTO's Criteria and Indicators for Sustainable Management of Natural Tropical Forests were initially developed in 1992, and in 1998 they were revised (Simula, 2003). The Pan-European criteria and indicators for SFM were adopted on the expert level in 1994 and they were formally endorsed in 1998 (Simula, 2003). The Montreal Process was launched in 1993 and their criteria and indicators were concluded in 1995 (Simula, 2003). In the same year, eight countries in the Amazon region initiated the Tarapoto Proposal (Simula, 2003). FAO and UNEP supported three processes on criteria and indicators launched in the mid-1990s: The African Dry Zone Process covering the sub-Saharan area, the Near East Process, and the Dry Forest Asia initiative (Simula, 2003). In addition to these, the criteria and indicators have been developed in Central America under the Lepaterique Process launched in 1997 and in Africa under the auspices of the African Timber Organization (ATO) (Simula, 2003).

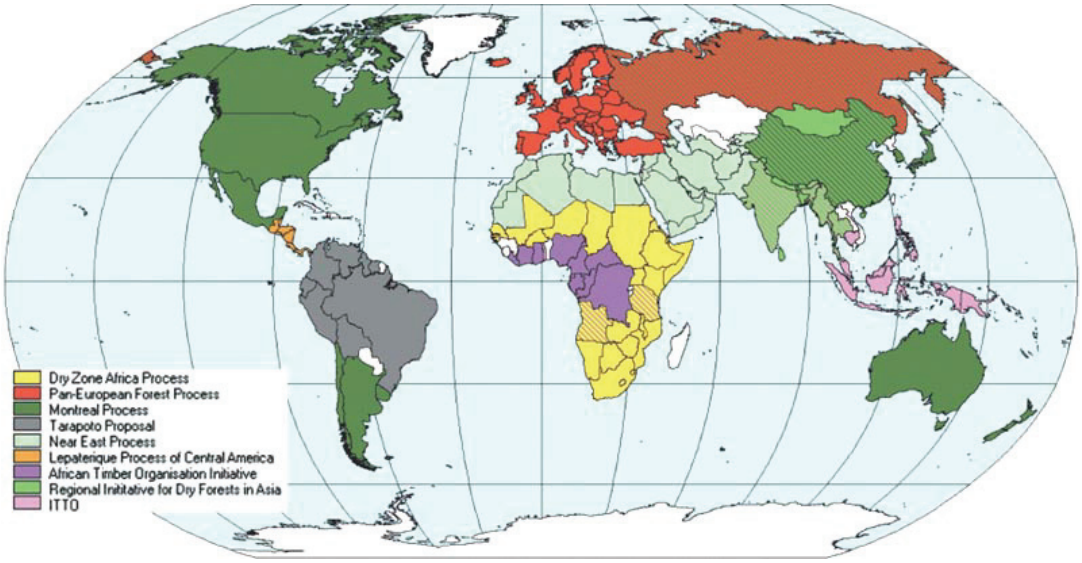


Figure 4 Geographical Coverage of Nine Criteria and Indicator Processes
Source: www.fao.org/docrep/004/y2701e/y2701e00.jpg

While the sustainable forest management is of great importance in terms of protecting and improving the existing forests as natural resources, tourism developments provide both contributions and limitations to this objective. The following section focuses on the complex relation between environment and tourism.

2.3 The relation between environment and tourism

Tourism and environment keep a complex relationship (Gonzalez, 2004). Environment holds the main natural and cultural attractions of tourist places. The presence of biodiversity, protected areas and forest eco-system are of great importance for tourism (Gössling and Hall, 2006). Regarding biodiversity, wildlife is generally an attraction, particularly to tourists from industrialized countries where people have fewer experiences with nature (Gössling and Hall, 2006). Tourists may often be attracted by environments that differ from those experienced at home (Gössling and Hall, 2006). The exoticism of biodiversity thus plays an important role, particularly for those destinations that focus on eco-tourism and other forms of nature-based tourism which are often connected to national parks and public and private reserves (Gössling and Hall, 2006).

The presence of protected areas is another significant potential for tourism development. Protected areas, covering about 7,7% of the Earth's land surface, range from strict protection with limited public access, to areas where recreation is encouraged but resource development is not, to multiple use areas where resource utilisation, recreation and nature conservation are all practised (Buckley, 2002). Among them, National Parks embody the classical model where human activities are prohibited or closely regulated in order to protect a natural environment (Leitmann, 1998). This approach works best in uninhabited regions or areas that are remote, inaccessible or of low economic interest (Leitmann, 1998). However, other approaches had to be developed for countries where much of the land has been inhabited for a long period of time (Leitmann, 1998). In these places, two new types of geographic focus developed in the 20th century. First, options were formulated to protect small natural or semi-natural areas that were in danger of disappearing

(Leitmann, 1998). Second, efforts were undertaken to conserve inhabited areas that have cultural, historical and/or natural value, usually through nature parks or protected landscapes (Leitmann, 1998). IUCN has classified categories of protected areas with different management objectives (**Table 2**).

Table 2 IUCN Protected Area Categories

Category	Type	Main management objective	Tourism and recreation
Ia	Strict Nature Reserve	science	not applicable
Ib	Wilderness Area	wilderness protection	secondary objective
II	National Park	ecosystem protection and recreation	primary objective
III	Natural Monument	conservation of specific natural features	primary objective
IV	Habitat / Species Management Area	conservation through management intervention	potentially applicable objective
V	Protected Landscape / Seascape	landscape / seascape conservation and recreation	primary objective
VI	Managed Resource Protected Area	sustainable use of natural ecosystems	potentially applicable objective

Sources: Leitmann ,1998, p.130; Eagles et al., 2002, p.10

Beside biodiversity and protected areas, the presence of forest ecosystem is also seen as an important potential for tourism and recreation, particularly in the mid-latitudes (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). For example, forests in the tropics, host a majority of the world's biodiversity, with many individual species being of great importance for tourism (Gössling and Hickler, 2006).

Although environment provides great opportunities for tourism, it is negatively impacted by tourism development. First of all, the components of tourism, such as transportation, accommodation, food services, and retail activities, and the processes related to them may have negative influence on the environment (Alavalapati and Adamowicz, 2000). More important than that, overall tourism developments may lead to global environmental damage, such as land-use changes, loss of biodiversity and forest ecosystems, emission of greenhouse gases, resource depletion (Gössling and Hall, 2006). All these negative impacts on the environment, in the medium

future, will have consequences for tourism and recreation (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). For example, as biodiversity is under serious stress through global climate change, loss of species might also affect forest tourism (Gössling and Hickler, 2006).

The satisfactory management of the complex interaction between environment and tourism therefore is necessary and requires a holistic approach integrating natural and social subsystems involved in tourism development (Gonzalez, 2004). The relationship between tourism and environment has been the object of scientific research since the 1960s and the 1970s especially with the rise of the green movement that released environmental impacts of tourism (Gössling and Hall, 2006). Since then, a wide range of tools have been developed to assess and cope with environmental change, including the Level of Acceptable Change[2] concept (LAC) and the Environmental Impact Assessment[3] (EIA) (Gössling and Hall, 2006). Nowadays, these concepts are used frequently, for example, an EIA is a prerequisite for tourist infrastructure development in many countries (Gössling and Hall, 2006), including Turkey. Nevertheless, to date, the main approaches dealing with tourism development have not yielded satisfactorily in this field (Gonzalez, 2004).

2.4 Tourism developments in forest lands

Forest tourism has become more and more popular in recent years. The reasons for this growing interest are multiple (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). First of all, tourism is increasingly built on the marketing of nature and the natural, which have become central elements of travel (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). Nature has, in many contexts, become a playground for adventure and experience-seeking tourists (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). Overall, tourists seem more environmentally aware and there is a general trend towards more educative and challenging vacations (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). This development seems to be self-reinforcing, because environmental consciousness comes into existence through education,

[2] Acceptable change is specific to each place – it is individual and dependent on the specific values of each place. It is specific to the authenticity of each place.
[3] An assessment of the possible impact—positive or negative—that a proposed project may have on the natural environment.

increased media attention and the comparison of the character of the physical and built environment of different places through travelling (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). The conclusion would be that the relationship of environmental awareness and travel is a self-reinforcing one, because a heightened environmental consciousness will lead to more travel, while more travel will in turn lead to increased environmental awareness (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). Due to their attractiveness for recreation, forests play an important role in this process (Gössling and Hickler, 2006).

Second, in industrialized countries, forests have important educative, spiritual and religious roles, and they might often function as links between urbanized and industrialized societies and the natural environment (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). This might go along with processes of mystification and romanticisation of forests (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). It is likely that tourism and recreation in forest areas will increase in the future (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). This development will, in industrialized countries, be result of the wish to recover from daily urban life, and in developing countries due to a growing interest in nature tourism by both domestic and international tourists (Gössling and Hickler, 2006).

Third, forest tourism has a substantial economic value (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). For example, guesthouses, hotels and restaurants in proximity to well-known national parks and other protected areas will usually profit from tourism and, in many countries, guided tours, or experience packages such as beaver or moose safaris, or souvenir selling industries have developed (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). Thus, the development of forest tourism is widely considered as a strategy which promotes the economic vitality and growth of rural areas.

Despite the rising interest in forest tourism, from an environmental point of view, forest tourism can be problematic (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). Forest tourism usually concentrates on rather limited, ‘attractive’ areas which are scarce renewable resources of the world (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). It may cause a number of problems due to the heavy use of forests, such as the disturbance of wildlife,

trampling of vegetation, forest fires, erosion of soil and impacts of cars through off-road driving and emissions of different trace gases (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). Thus forest tourism may disturb the ecological balance that the nature worked out through ages.

Beside tourism, forests are under the threat of other factors. Over the last centuries, between 20 and 30 % of natural forests have been replaced by anthropogenic land-use types, such as agriculture and pastures; and forest losses have been most severe in temperate and warm non-tropical forests (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). Clearing of tropical humid forests eliminates about 1 million km² every 5 to 10 years, with burning and selective logging severely damaging several times the cleared area (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). Additionally, the global warming, as stated before, will ultimately make negative impacts on forests, and their biodiversity and eco-system.

All these factors do not only indicate threats on forests, but also forest-based tourism. The future use of forests for tourism will also depend on the tourists' aesthetic perception of landscapes and forest types, their perception of damage caused by weather extremes, the loss of charismatic species and, potentially, their risk perception if disease-carrying vectors become more abundant (Gössling and Hickler, 2006). All these evidences suggest that there is a need for a sustainable tourism planning for the natural resources of the Earth, including forest lands.

2.5 Sustainable tourism planning

The concept of sustainable tourism was introduced after the Rio Earth Summit in 1992 (Goh, 2007). It emerges as a more responsible form of tourism and seeks to minimize the negative impacts of tourism development while contributing to nature conservation and benefiting local communities (Goh, 2007). According to the World Tourism Organization, 'sustainable tourism development guidelines and practices are applicable to all forms of tourism in all types of destinations including mass tourism and the various niche tourism segments. Sustainability principles refer to the

environmental, economic and socio-cultural aspects of tourism development, and a suitable balance must be established between these three dimensions to guarantee its long-term sustainability.' (Goh, 2007)

Hall and Page (2006) describe 5 tourism planning approaches, namely 'boosterism', 'economic', 'physical/spatial', 'community' and 'sustainable' tourism planning (**Table 3**). These different planning approaches, while not mutually exclusive, conceptualise tourism planning in distinct ways (Hall and Page, 2006). Each perspective differs in its underlying assumptions about planning, problem definition, the appropriate level of analysis and research methods (Hall and Page, 2006). **Boosterism** is the simplistic attitude that tourism development is inherently good and of automatic benefit to the hosts (Hall and Page, 2006). In contrast, an **economic planning approach** towards tourism aims to promote growth and development in specific areas (Hall and Page, 2006). One of the main areas to which geographers have contributed is the **physical/spatial approach** under which tourism is regarded as having an ecological base with a resultant need for development to be based upon certain spatial patterns, capacities or thresholds that would minimise the negative impacts of tourism on the physical environment (Hall and Page, 2006). A **community approach** emphasises the social and political context within which tourism occurs and advocates greater local control over the development process (Hall and Page, 2006).

Since the late-1990s, geographers have become concerned with the development of sustainable approaches towards tourism (Hall and Page, 2006). **Sustainable tourism planning** is therefore an integrative form of tourism planning, which bears much similarity to the many traditionally applied concerns of the geographer as resource manager (Hall and Page, 2006). Sustainable tourism planning seeks to provide lasting and secure livelihoods with minimal resource depletion, environmental degredation, cultural disruption and social instability (Hall and Page, 2006). The approach therefore tends to integrate features of the economic, physical/spatial and community traditions (Hall and Page, 2006).

Table 3 Approaches to Tourism Planning

Planning tradition	Underlying assumptions and related attitudes	Definition of the tourism planning problem	Some examples of related methods	Some examples of related models
1. Boosterism	• tourism is inherently good • tourism should be developed • cultural and natural resources should be exploited • industry as expert • development defined in business / corporate terms	• how many tourists can be attracted and accommodated? • how can obstacles be overcome? • convincing hosts to be good to tourists	• promotion • public relations • advertising • growth targets	• demand forecasting models
2. Economic	• tourism equal to other industries • use tourism to create employment, earn foreign revenue and improve terms of trade, encourage regional development, overcome regional economic dispairities • planner as expert • development defined in economic terms	• can tourism be used as a growth pole? • maximisation of income and employment multipliers • influencing consumer choice • providing economic values for externalities • providing economic values for conservation purposes	• supply-demand analysis • benefit-cost analysis • product-market matching • development incentives • market segmentation	• management processes • tourism master plans • motivation • economic impact • economic multipliers • hedonistic pricing
3. Physical / spatial	• tourism as a resource user • ecological basis to development • tourism as a spatial and regional phenomenon • environmental conservation • development defined in environmental terms • preserrvation of genetic diversity	• physical carrying capacity • manipulating travel patterns and visitor flows • visitor management • concentration or dispersal of visitors • perceptions of natural environment • wilderness and national park management • designation of environmentally sensitive areas	• ecological studies • environmental impact assessment • regional planning • perceptual studies	• spatial patterns and processes • physical impacts • resort mosphology • LAC (limits of acceptable change) • ROS (recreational opportunity spectrum) • TOS (tourism opportunity spectrum) • Destination life cycles

Table 3 (continued)

Planning tradition	Underlying assumptions and related attitudes	Definition of the tourism planning problem	Some examples of related methods	Some examples of related models
4. Community	• need for local control • search for balanced development • search for alternatives to mass tourism development • planner as facilitator rather than expert • development defined in socio-cultural terms	• how to foster community control? • understanding community attitudes towards tourism • understanding the impacts of tourism on a community • social impact	• community development • awareness and education • attitudinal surveys • social impact assessment	• eceological view of community • social / perceptual carrying capacity • attitudinal change • social multiplier
5. Sustainable	• integration of economic, environmental and socio-cultural values • tourism planning integrated with other planning processes • holistic planning • preservation of essential ecological processes • protection of human heritage and biodiversity • intergenerational and intra-generational equity • achievement of a better balance of fairness and opportunity between nations • planning and policy as argument • planning as process • planning and implementation as two sides of the same coin • recognition of political dimension of tourism	• understanding the tourism system • setting goals, objectives and priorities • achieving policy and administrative co-ordination in and between the public and private sectors • co-operative and integrated control systems • understanding the political dimensions of tourism • planning for tourism that meets local needs and trades succesfully in a competitive marketplace	• strategic planning to supersede conventional approaches • raising producer awareness • raising consumer awareness • raising community awareness • stakeholder input • policy analysis • evaluative research • political economy • aspirations analysis • stakeholder audit • environmental analysis and audit • interpretation	• systems models • integrated models focused on places and links and relationships between such places • resources as culturally constituted • environmental perception • business ecology • learning organizations

Source: Hall and Page, 2006, pp.323-324

Hunter (1997) outlines four different sustainable tourism approaches, based loosely on interpretations of sustainable development:

1. **Sustainable Development through a "Tourism Imperative".** This approach could be seen as going as far as is possible towards a very weak interpretation of sustainable development. It is heavily skewed towards the fostering and development of tourism, and would be primarily concerned with satisfying the needs and desires of tourists and tourism operators.
2. **Sustainable Development through "Product-Led Tourism".** This approach may be equated in many ways with a weak interpretation of sustainable development. The environmental side of the tourism/environment system at destination areas may well receive consideration, but is secondary to the primary need to develop new, and maintain existing, tourism products, with all this entails in terms of marketing and the enablement of tourism operators so that growth in the tourism sector can be achieved as far as is feasible. A wide range of environmental and social concerns may be seen as important within the destination area, but, as a general rule, only in so far as these act directly and in an immediately apparent sense to sustain tourism products.
3. **Sustainable Development through "Environment-Led Tourism".** In this approach, decisions are made which skew the tourism/environment system towards a paramount concern for the status of the environment. Perhaps most applicable in areas where tourism is non-existent or relatively new, the aim would be to promote types of tourism (e.g., ecotourism, but as more than a mere label) which specifically and overtly rely on the maintenance of a high quality natural environment and/or cultural experiences. The goal would be to make the link between tourism success and environmental quality so strong that it is transparent to all interested parties what the risks to tourism's continued survival would be should tourism not be strictly controlled and ultimately limited to within the carrying capacity or sustainable yield of the least robust aspect of the environmental resource base.
4. **Sustainable Development through "Neotenous Tourism".** This, very strong, sustainability approach is predicated upon the belief that there are circumstances in which tourism should be actively and continuously discouraged on ecological grounds. In some places, including nature reserves of national or international importance, tourism growth should be sacrificed for the greater good. Tourism can never be totally without environmental impacts; but one can take the precautionary approach to environmental protection to a point where the functional integrity of natural ecosystems at the destination area as a whole is protected as far as is feasible. Absolute preservation may also be possible at some exceptionally sensitive sites in the sense of maintaining an ecologically viable range of habitats and species. (Hunter, 1997)

Clarke (1997) proposes four positions of understanding of sustainable tourism. The first pair regard sustainable tourism as a current possession of a particular scale of tourism, whilst the second pair treat the phenomenon as a goal to be striven for:

1. **The first position of polar opposites**
   The first, and probably the earliest of the four positions, was that of mass tourism and sustainable tourism conceived as *polar opposites*. Alternative tourism was the popular label for sustainable tourism, mutual exclusion being implicit in the term. As a force, sustainable tourism was understood to be pulling away from mass tourism, which served as a point of repulsion. Thus, sustainable tourism and mass tourism were stereotyped as the 'good' and the 'bad'.
2. **The second position of a continuum**
   By the 1990s, the original position of polar opposites was generally rejected as unproductive, but the notion of a *continuum* between sustainable tourism and mass tourism presented a flexible adaptation of the earlier ideas. In recognition that sustainable tourism utilised the infrastructure, transport and reservation systems of mass tourism, spawned an accompanying tourism industry structure, and had the potential to develop into mass tourism if not properly managed, the simplicity of polar opposites was adjusted to a continuum between the two extremes. Variations were appropriately placed along the spectrum.
3. **The third position of movement**
   Criticisms of the earlier understandings of sustainable tourism, coupled with a closer alignment to sustainable development, resulted in the demand to change mass tourism to more sustainable forms. If the *main problem* of modern tourism is that of its *huge number*, then mass tourism was the most visible and sensible candidate for initial reform. The sustainable tourism as understood under *movement* differed from the earlier definitions of sustainable tourism on three key dimensions:
   - The issue of scale became more objective and less emotive. Mass tourism became the subject for improvement, rather than the derided villain.
   - Sustainable tourism became the goal for attainment, rather than the possession of an existing scale of tourism.
   - Operationalising current knowledge to move towards the goal became the practical focus of effort, rather than the 'is it or isn't it sustainable tourism' debate of previous years.
4. **The fourth position of convergence**
   This position represents the latest understanding of sustainable tourism as a goal that all tourism, regardless of scale, must strive to achieve. Accepting that the concept of sustainable tourism is still evolving, the absence of a precise goal definition is less important than general movement in the correct direction. Appreciating the wider role of

> sustainable development, this final position recognises two interpretations of sustainable tourism. The large scale interpretation of sustainable tourism (as portrayed in position three) has a dominantly physical/ecological perspective expressed as a business orientation. The small scale interpretation of sustainable tourism offers a social slant from a local or destination platform. (Clarke, 1997)

'Sustainable forest tourism' has not been a widely researched topic yet. This subject is counted between the main research topics of the Laboratory of Forest Environment Planning in Division of Forest and Biomaterials Science, Graduate School of Agriculture, Kyoto University (Ohta and Matsushita, 2008). However, there are some papers implying sustainable forest tourism:

Hiwasaki (2003) analyzes the policy and institutional arrangements about nature-based tourism in parks and protected areas of Japan, 66 percent of whose total land area is forest. In contrast with many countries, Japan has created national parks not only in public lands but also in private lands (Hiwasaki, 2003). Another discrepancy is that the focus of natural parks has been the preservation of the scenery and landscape, not biodiversity conservation (Hiwasaki, 2003). As a third discrepancy, Japan lacks sufficient human and financial resources for park management (Hiwasaki, 2003). Some of tourism developments, such as huge hotels, cable cars, toll-ways, ski resorts and golf courses have been constructed in forest lands (Hiwasaki, 2003). Despite such problems, recent amandments to Japan's Natural Parks Law have included biodiversity conservation, utilization regulation zones (limiting visitor numbers and length of stay), and delegation to local non-profit organizations (Hiwasaki, 2003). Hiwasaki (2003) points out that protected area authorities should not work alone and developing a program to involve stakeholders is a critical element of successful park tourism.

Martin (2008) indicates that there is a lack of information on the links between sustainable land management and tourism in a forestry context throughout Europe. The UK's framework for sustainable forestry is expressed in the UK Forestry Standard, implemented via national forestry strategies in Scotland, England and Wales (Martin, 2008). The incorporation of tourism into forestry policy is a response

to the understanding that woodlands have potential for development as tourism resources that can deliver economic benefits for rural communities and national economies (Martin, 2008). Woodlands are more than economic assets to tourism (Martin, 2008). Their technical qualities that have especially great potential for sustainable tourism management by mitigating some of the negative social and environmental impacts of leisure activities (Martin, 2008). The research findings suggest that woodland policy and practice should encourage a more holistic and integrated use of resources for tourism (Martin, 2008). Participatory approaches to woodland management could lead to the establishment of new partnerships between woodland managers and tourism providers, sharing natural, man-made and social resources to aid the provision, marketing and maintenance of woodland-tourism products and services (Martin, 2008). This could contribute to a wider (and more equitable) distribution of costs and benefits (Martin, 2008).

2.6 Cases from the World

This section of the study aims at exploring the main common strategies, components and mechanisms for sustainable tourism-oriented allocation of forest lands abroad. In order to do this, two provinces from two countries of the developed world are selected; British Columbia (BC) in Canada and Queensland (QLD) in Australia. The reasons for choice are explained below:

- Both Canada and Australia have vast public and forest lands (**Figure 5**).
- Leasehold[4] system is vital for each countries' land tenure[5].
- Tourism is an important sector in national and provincial economies of the study areas.
- Both countries are advanced in terms of sustainable tourism planning.

[4] An ownership interest in public land in which a lessee or a tenant holds the land by some form of title from the Government.
[5] The name given, particularly in common law systems, to the legal regime in which land is owned by an individual, who is said to "hold" the land.

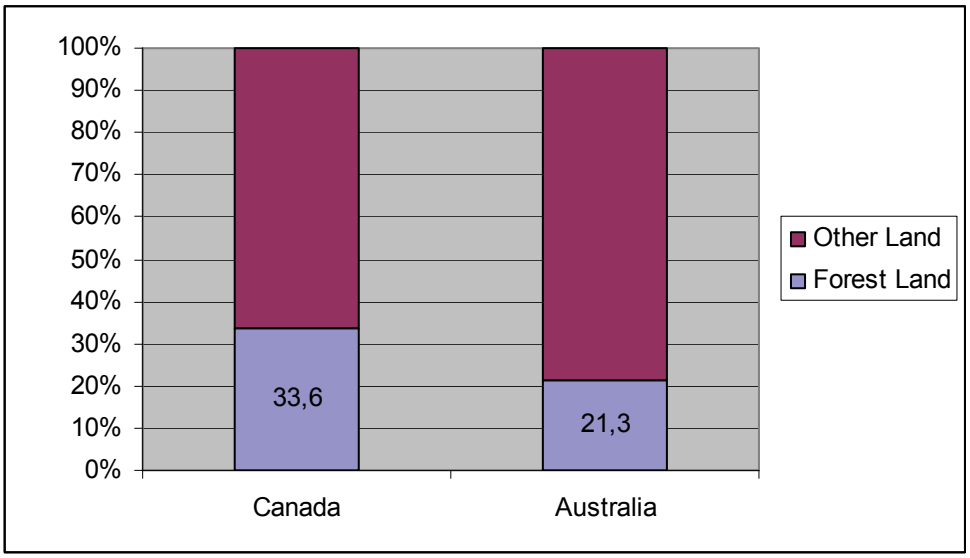


Figure 5 Forest Lands in 2005 (% of Total Land)
Source: Derived from http://hdrstats.undp.org

The two cases are examined regarding their institutional organizations, and stakeholders, their sustainable tourism and environment strategy in general and forest stategy in particular, and their legislative regulation.

2.6.1 British Columbia, Canada

Canada is the second largest country in the world (GC, 2008). Tourism makes a valuable contribution to the economic, social and environmental well-being of the country (GC, 2008). In 2005, tourism sector generated approximately $61,4 billion of revenue, and over $25,6 billion of value added (2.01% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP)) to the Canadian economy, where agriculture, forestry, fishing and hunting sectors constitute 2,2% of GDP in 1997 constant dollars (GC, 2008). But, as, in 2004, Canada slipped out of the top 10 destinations, both in terms of arrivals and receipts in favour of other destinations in Europe and Asia, the Canada Government has been planning to turn this trend back through the upcoming major events, such as the 2010 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games which will take place in BC (GC, 2008).

BC is the third largest province in Canada with a total area of 94,8 million hectares (BCG, MOAL, 2007). In BC, 94 % of the land is Provincial Crown land[6] (2 % of which is covered by fresh water), while only 5% of the land is privately owned (**Figure 6**) (BCG, MOAL, 2007). Tourism is the third-largest sector in the province economy, after forestry and energy; and its revenue is greater than that of mining, agriculture and fishing combined (BCG, MOTSA, 2007a). The province's tourism revenues were $9.8 billion in 2005, and are projected to double by 2015 (BCG, MOTSA, 2007a, 2007b). According to the Council of Tourism Associations of BC (COTA), in 2004, there were about 18,000 tourism-related businesses throughout the province, with 117,500 people employed in jobs directly related to tourism (BCG, MOTSA, 2007a). It is anticipated that, by 2015, more than 84,000 new tourism jobs will be created (BCG, MOTSA, 2007a). The most important tourism market for BC however is the local market (BCG, MOTSA, 2007a). In 2005, 50% of the province's 22,9 million overnight visitors was British Columbians travelling within the province, whilst 21% of them was international (**Figure 7**) (BCG, MOTSA, 2007a).

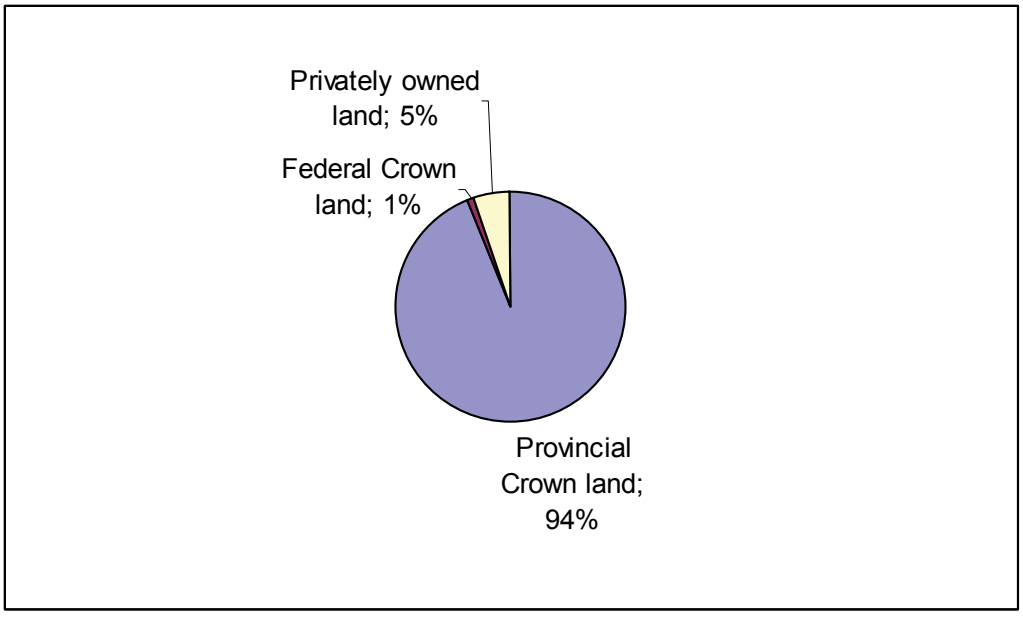


Figure 6 Land Base in British Columbia
Source: BCG, MOAL, 2007, p.1

[6] A designated area belonging to the Crown, the equivalent of an entailed estate that passed with the monarchy and could not be alienated from it.

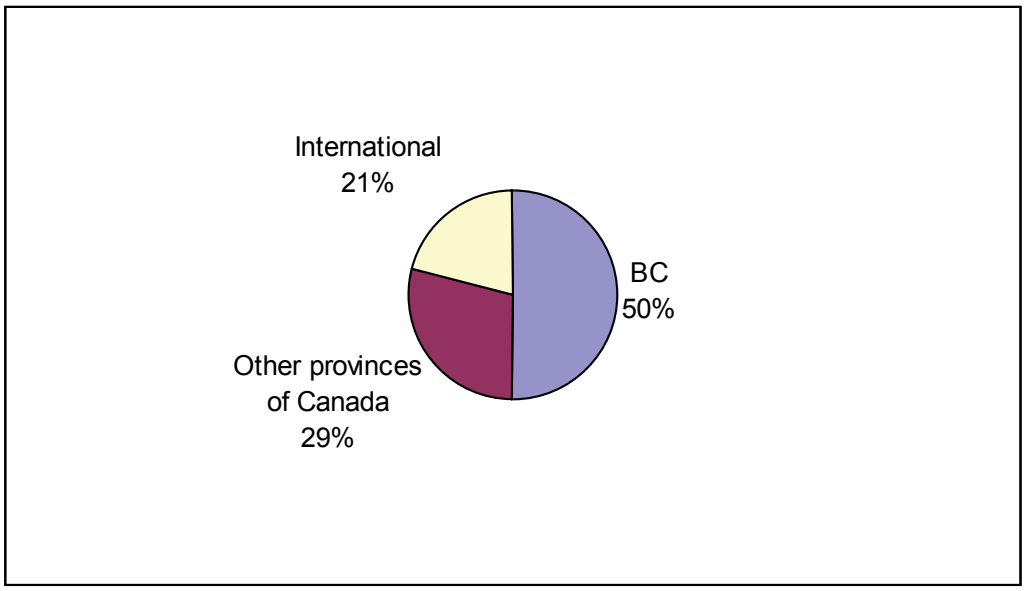


Figure 7 Overnight Visitors to British Columbia
Source: BCG, MOTSA, 2007a, p.6

2.6.1.1 Institutional organization of tourism and environment sectors

In Canada, public sector includes federal, provincial and territorial governments. The federal government has responsibility for management of resources, while the provincial governments have primary responsibility for allocation of property rights and resources (Reed and Gill, 1997). At the federal government level, there are two major agencies related to tourism and environment. The first one is **Environment Canada (EC)** whose mandate is to preserve and enhance the quality of the natural environment; conserve the country's renewable resources; conserve and protect water resources; forecast weather and environmental change; enforce rules relating to boundary waters; and coordinate environmental policies and programs for the federal government (EC). Forests are also within the scope of EC at the federal level (EC). The second agency is **Industry Canada (IC)** that has the lead responsibility for tourism policy (GC, 2008). Two Ministers of State serve under IC, one of which is responsible for Small Business and Tourism (GC, 2008).

At the provincial level, there are a number of ministries involved in issues related to tourism and environment. **Ministry of Environment (MOE)** is one of them.

Historically, Ministry of Environment, Lands and Parks (MELP) was responsible for regulating both backcountry tourism and ski hill development, and it had served a gatekeeper role, regulating primarily by limitation and reacting to environmental changes, rather than providing lands and incentives for economic development (Reed and Gill, 1997). In 2001, MELP was dissolved and split into Ministry of Water, Land and Air Protection and Ministry of Sustainable Resource Management. In 2005, the mentioned Ministries were merged into the newly created MOE that implements the planning processes in protected areas covering 12% of designated Crown land in BC (Edwards-Craig, 2003). Another institution, **Ministry of Forests and Range (MOFR)**, implements the planning processes in provincial forests covering 87% of designated Crown land in BC (Edwards-Craig, 2003). The third one is **Ministry of Tourism, Culture and the Arts (MOTCA)** which is the key driver for expanding the tourism industry through the Tourism Action Plan (BCG, MOTSA, 2007b). Another public actor is **Tourism British Columbia (Tourism BC)**, a Crown Corporation established in 1997 (BCG, MOTCA). It is the responsibility of the Ministry of Tourism, Culture and the Arts and operates under the direction of an industry-led Board of Directors. Tourism BC has the responsibility for marketing the Super Natural British Columbia brand to the world and is recognized throughout the world as a marketing success story (BCG, MOTCA). Tourism BC works cooperatively with industry partners to promote the development and growth of BC's tourism industry and ensure its long-term success (BCG, MOTCA). Led by 15 Board members with full management, financial and legal authority, Tourism BC is funded through a percentage of provincial hotel room tax (TBC). **Ministry of Agriculture and Lands (MOAL)** issues Crown land tenures and sells Crown land on behalf of the BC Province (BCG, MOAL, 2007). Different Crown land tenure types (which include investigative permits, temporary permits, licences of occupation, statutory rights of way and leases) are available depending on the desired use and term of the contract (BCG, MOAL, 2007). The sale of surface rights is available to individuals, businesses and local government (BCG, MOAL, 2007). Crown land sales include residential, agricultural, industrial, and commercial land (BCG, MOAL, 2007). MOAL and delegated agencies (**Figure 8**), through an application process, may grant the use and occupation of Crown land to citizens and registered organizations for a

variety of purposes, such as utilities, extensive and intensive agriculture, commercial, industrial, adventure tourism/commercial recreation, log handling, grazing, wind power, mining, marinas, communication sites, alpine skiing/all season resorts, aggregates, airports, residential, aquaculture and private moorage (BCG, MOAL, 2007). **Integrated Land Management Bureau (ILMB)** is a department in MOAL highly related with the scope of this thesis. ILMB's mandate is to provide British Columbians with access to integrated Crown land and resource authorizations, planning dispositions and resource information services (BCG, MOAL). Many of these services are provided to, or on behalf of provincial natural resource and economy ministries (**Figure 8**) (BCG, MOAL).

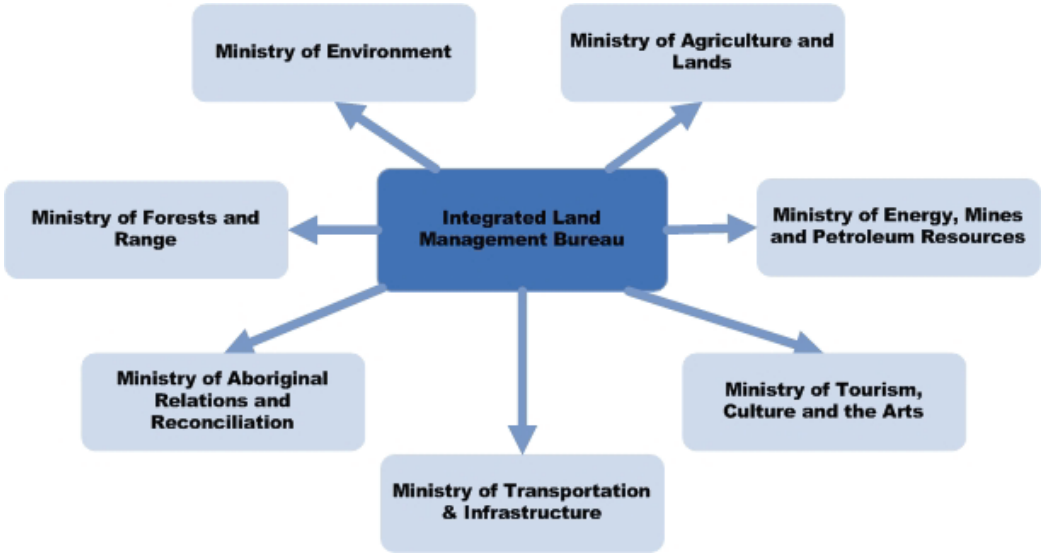


Figure 8 ILMB and the related Ministries
Source: BCG, MOAL

2.6.1.2 Other actors / stakeholders active in tourism and environment sectors

Apart from the institutional organization of the public sector, private sector, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and community are the key actors for tourism. Private sector play active roles in tourism developments.

No single organization or individual can exert direct control over the destination's development process (Reed, 1997). In the most narrow interpretation, it is true that

individuals often rely on coalitions with other private or public individuals or agencies (Reed, 1997). Organizational policies deal with issues of who will make decisions in the community and who will take responsibility for them (Reed, 1997). Authority for decision-making is shared among different tiers of government as well as among different stakeholders within a local community (Reed, 1997). Historically, local development has been determined to a large extent by the decisions of individual private entrepreneurs in the community (Reed, 1997). In addition, conventional local elites, such as real-estate developers, landowners, lending banks, and the local Chamber of Commerce or business association could be counted among the determiners of local development (Reed, 1997).

In recent years, tourism development initiatives are more based on public-private partnerships. Especially the role of private sector and its relations with local authorities are important for directing tourism developments.

In Canada, NGOs also play active roles in tourism and environment-related issues. While some NGOs obviously promote tourism developments in or near forest lands of BC, others propose a more limited development. For example, **The Council of Tourism Associations (COTA)** of BC is an advocacy organization that represents more than 18,000 tourism operations across the province (COTA). According to them, tourism plays an important role in managing B.C.'s resources for the future (COTA). The tourism industry makes it a guiding practice to share the responsibility of proper environmental stewardship with other resource-based sectors, environmental groups, communities and management agencies (COTA). COTA supports the establishment of partnerships with all of these groups so the wonders of their natural heritage are there for all to enjoy today and tomorrow (COTA). Crucial to the notion of sustainable tourism is the recognition that natural resources are finite and have limited carrying capacity not only for tourism but also for all resource users (COTA). Only planning and careful management will ensure that these limits are respected (COTA). COTA recognizes the responsibility of the industry in the land use planning process, which demands playing an equal role in all decisions regarding land and resource use (COTA). To realize growth potential in outdoor adventure

tourism, the industry requires long-term tenure on crown lands (COTA). To assist investment in the development of tourism facilities and services, COTA supports the maintenance of an effective, timely and affordable tenuring system for tourism operations, supported by enabling public policies (COTA). Another NGO in BC is **British Columbia Wildlife Federation (BCWF)**, a province-wide voluntary conservation organization of hunters, anglers and recreational shooters, representing all British Columbians whose aims are to protect, enhance and promote the wise use of the environment for the benefit of present and future generations (BCWF). BCWF recognizes that the BC parks are a vital component in the province's recreation endowment; that they contribute to the value of the tourism option and therefore, that recreational value must be given protection from further erosion due to boundary changes or impacts by industry (BCWF). The access objective of the Federation is to maintain a mosaic of opportunity in their recreation that can be enjoyed by present and future generations (BCWF). They believe there is room in the province to accommodate the differing values that society demands (BCWF). These values may range from wilderness to unlimited opportunity (BCWF). Their access policy covers differing points of view:

- To obtain and maintain reasonable Public Access to all forests and recreational areas of the province.
- BCWF supports the principle of public access to public land and waterways.
- When "Common Property" values are threatened by excessive access it may be appropriate to restrict, prohibit or eliminate some methods of access.
- To foster good relationships with Landowners and others having a legitimate interest on the land base in order to encourage the widest possible availability of access to their recreations. (BCWF)

On the other hand, **The Federation of Mountain Clubs of British Columbia (FMCBC)** (2006) advocates the idea that ecological integrity and conservation of biodiversity should be maintained in National Parks. For this reason, they support the permission of only non-motorized and low impact recreational access into National Parks; suggest that new commercial (i.e. for profit) resort style hotels, lodges or other similar concessions are not to be built in any location in any park; and additionally, they recommend that new roofed accommodation should be oriented to modest,

affordable, public huts (e.g. less than 30 beds) (FMCBC, 2006). For them, the development and management of such huts should be done either by government or non-profit clubs and community organizations (FMCBC, 2006).

Also, community-based tourism planning, and thus the community involvement in tourism development, has become more and more important in Canada. In this sense, a ski resort development in Squamish, BC, in the early-1990s is significant. By the late-1980s, an international developer company approached the municipality to develop a four-season ski resort at Brohm Ridge[7], which has been the object of development dreams by some local politicians since 1974 (Reed and Gill, 1997). The proposal of the company was very attractive to the majority of the municipal council members, as forestry jobs in the area had the potential to decrease in the near future; and a ski hill development would offer not only jobs, taxes, and other local benefits, but it would also boost the profile of Squamish, providing a launch for a potentially lucrative tourism product (Reed and Gill, 1997). Because the proposal was to develop Crown lands for which the provincial government was responsible, the municipality and the company lobbied the provincial government to approve the project (Reed and Gill, 1997). In the absence of approval, the municipality sought to annex the property so that it would have authority to regulate the project itself (Reed and Gill, 1997). For several years, the provincial government declined approval of the ski hill development, suggesting that the municipality had not 'gone to the people' to determine if this was the type of tourism attraction which community residents would like to support (Reed and Gill, 1997). After months of negotiating and posturing, the municipality decided to engage in the community tourism planning process (Reed and Gill, 1997). Eventually, the development of a ski resort at Brohm Ridge was supported and embedded within the objective, "to develop a plan to promote outdoor winter tourism opportunities and attractions" (Reed and Gill, 1997).

The development process of the ski resort is also very interesting in terms of the arenas created for the community involvement. As a new process, a **citizen's**

[7] A ski hill project in Squamish, BC

tourism advisory committee, composed of 19 volunteer residents, established outside of the municipality (Reed, 1999). To oversee the process, a **tourism coordinating committee** was established with representatives from the conventional power holders including municipal and regional government agencies, the Chamber of Commerce, and BC Rail[8] (Reed and Gill, 1997). The citizen's advisory committee created a tourism development plan subject to approval by the coordinating committee; identified priorities for specific strategies, developed action plan concepts, and created a vision statement to guide the plan (Reed and Gill, 1997). Then, the committee submitted its draft plan to the coordinating committee and the Municipal Council (Reed, 1999). The Chamber of Commerce, through its position on the coordinating committee, demanded that certain revisions be made (Reed, 1999). The final plan developed and ranked 30 action plan concepts for future tourism development (Reed, 1999). Of the 30 concepts, the first 10 were related to research, planning, logistical support, training, coordination and infrastructure development (Reed, 1999).

The tourism development plan of the Squamish case presented a much broader vision of tourism than that held by the conventional power elites, primarily the Chamber of Commerce and the Municipal Council (Reed, 1999). A diverse range of options for tourism was presented; representing a shift from the development of a solely private project towards public goods and services that would be in keeping with community needs and desires (Reed, 1999).

The native peoples of the new world[9] are called as the 'indigenous peoples' by some international organizations such as the UN, the International Labour Organization and the World Bank. The United Nations General Assembly (GA) adopted the Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples on September 13, 2007 (IWGIA). The text recognises the wide range of basic human rights and fundamental freedoms of indigenous peoples (IWGIA). Among these are the right to unrestricted self-determination, an inalienable collective right to the ownership, use and control of

[8] A railway company, operated in BC between 1912 and 2004.
[9] The non-Afro-Eurasian parts of the Earth, specifically the Americas and Australasia.

lands, territories and other natural resources, their rights in terms of maintaining and developing their own political, religious, cultural and educational institutions along with the protection of their cultural and intellectual property (IWGIA). Aboriginal peoples in Canada are called as First Nations. The terms 'public participation' and 'public interest' refer more dimensions for First Nations than other peoples of Canada. Some details on the rights and priviliges for First Nations are given in the next section of the study.

2.6.1.3 Sustainable tourism and environment strategy in general and sustainable forest strategy in particular

The Canada Government has been promoting a sustainable tourism approach by the late-1990s. At the federal government level, tourism ministers have acknowledged the importance of enhancing cooperation among, and between, governments and industry to maximize the benefits of tourism investments (GC, 2008). They confirmed their commitment to a collaborative approach in November 2003 by signing the Quebec Declaration and by creating the Canadian Council of Tourism Ministers (CCTM) (GC, 2008). The Declaration identified the key principles that guide the **National Tourism Strategy (NTS).** These principles are:

- "to promote federal, provincial and territorial (F/P/T) interventions that are research-based, and lead to action and innovation in product development and marketing;
- to develop tourism priorities that are nationally focused, provincially / territorially sensitive, and that recognize Northern and Aboriginal tourism as an emerging and important sector;
- to develop strong, flexible and dynamic partnerships among stakeholders and key decision makers at all levels of government;
- to enhance co-ordination and co-operation mechanisms to increase efficiency in accordance with the roles and responsibilities of each partner;
- to develop strategies to foster and encourage sustainable practices in the tourism industry" (GC, 2008).

Based on all these principles, the National Tourism Strategy sets up a vision which aims to "make Canada a sustainable and top-of-mind tourist destination, renowned worldwide for its exceptional and unique year-round, quality travel experiences" (GC, 2008). The Strategy emphasizes the importance of the collaboration among the key stakeholders of tourism, stating that "A new era of collaboration, involving all tourism stakeholders, is necessary to enable Canada to increase its market share and raise its domestic and international profile" (GC, 2008). The strategy also establishes ambitious goals and set out priority actions for achieving these goals:

> "F/P/T governments working in close partnership and in collaboration with the private sector to ensure Canada is among the world's top 10 tourist destinations, in terms of international arrivals and expenditures, and to increase domestic and international tourism revenues to $75 billion by 2010." (GC, 2008; BCG, MOTSA, 2007a; 2007b)

As a major strategy, the Ministry of Agriculture and Lands of BC Government (2007) takes measures to respect Aboriginal interests and promote reconciliation with First Nations in BC.

At the provincial level, the **Tourism Action Plan (TAP)** sets the targets and makes the key decisions about the development of tourism sector in BC; and outlines the provincial government's commitment to the tourism industry over the next 10 years and beyond (BCG, MOTSA, 2007b). Regarding BC, the TAP articulates the government's goal of enabling the province's tourism industry to grow from "good" to "great" and double tourism revenues by 2015 (BCG, MOTSA, 2007b). It identifies actions in four key strategic areas (i. marketing and promotion, ii. development and investment, iii. access and infrastructure; and iv. tourism workforce) that government and its agencies will carry out to help industry increase the demand for and supply of tourism and outdoor recreation products and experiences (BCG, MOTSA, 2007b).

More than 90% of land base in BC is Crown land that is owned and managed by the provincial government (BCG, MOTSA, 2007b). Thus, providing access to Crown

land for tourism and recreation development is also one of the jurisdictions of the BC government in Canada (BCG, MOTSA, 2007b). In BC, accessing Crown land can be complex, often involving community consultation, First Nations obligations and property tax issues (BCG, MOTSA, 2007b). According to the TAP (2007b), "Government agencies will examine and act upon the opportunities to streamline the land-use application process, and work together on the following actions to pro-actively promote tourism development investment opportunities on Crown land". These actions are:

- **"Action 1:** Government agencies and ministries will reduce the amount of time and paperwork required to approve a tourism related land-use application including publishing handbooks, harmonizing regulatory and policy regimes and legislative and regulatory changes for tenure pricing for tourism on all Crown lands, including parks.
- **Action 2:** Government agencies and ministries will increase access to and enjoyment of BC's parks and protected areas for tourism and outdoor recreation by developing a business plan for new management framework and delivery model.
- **Action 3:** Government and agencies will establish lodges in selected parks.
- **Action 4:** Government and agencies will increase First Nations investment in the tourism and outdoor recreation sectors. This includes identifying opportunities for First Nations to partner with new or existing resort operations.
- **Action 5:** Government and agencies will work to ensure that new resorts are approved and developed in an expedited manner. This includes creation of resort municipalities like Whistler[10] or new resorts. (BCG, MOTSA, 2007b)

The forest development plan (1:20.000 map scale) is the document that shows how and where forest harvesting activities will be conducted over a broad area (Osberg and Murphy, 1994). The forest development plan must be consistent with all higher-level plans and must demonstrate that the strategic resource management objectives established through public involvement processes and documented in higher-level

[10] A resort town in BC

plans will be achieved (Osberg and Murphy, 1994). The plan must be updated annually and must be made available for review by relevant resource management agencies and the public (Osberg and Murphy, 1994). The forest development plan must include a forest cover map that shows the history of previous timber harvesting and the regeneration status of these areas (Osberg and Murphy, 1994). The plan must also identify the locations of sensitive areas, unstable or potentially unstable terrain, significant recreational features, cultural heritage sites, and the location of all proposed forested corridors (forest ecosystem networks) designed to provide forested linkages between riparian reserves, old growth management areas, and protected mature forested reserves (Osberg and Murphy, 1994). In addition to mapped resource information, the forest development plan must contain a description of the management strategies that will be implemented to:

- maintain wildlife habitat;
- reduce the risk to the forest presented by identified forest health factors; and
- manage logging slash and woody debris accumulations resulting from silvicultural treatments to prevent the risk of fire from becoming unacceptably high. (Osberg and Murphy, 1994)

Another type of plan which is related to tourism developments is **Land and Resource Management Plans (LRMPs)** under the authority of three key ministries; i.e., the Ministry of Forests and Range, Ministry of Environment, Ministry of Energy, Mines and Petroleum Resources (Edwards-Craig, 2003). These ministers may refer plans with major land use issues to the Cabinet Committee on Sustainable Development[11] for review (Edwards-Craig, 2003). The LRMP identifies three broad categories of land zones that denote the type of land and natural resource use allocated to those areas (Edwards-Craig, 2003). In other words, it determines which backcountry tourism and outdoor recreation will be allocated to which zones (Edwards-Craig, 2003). The first category of land zone is **Protected Area Zone,** which includes lands that are in need of protection because of their uniqueness, biological diversity, or as areas containing endangered species (Edwards-Craig, 2003). These areas are important to the tourism industries as they help to ensure that

[11] A committee responsible for sustainable development issues under the Parliament of Canada

BC's natural wonders and cultural phenomenon are protected against commercial development (Edwards-Craig, 2003). This contributes to the long-term growth and stability of the industry and contributes to its international competitive advantage (Edwards-Craig, 2003). Parks and protected areas represent more than 12% of the provincial landmass (Edwards-Craig, 2003). This was an achievement that was reached in part because of the backcountry tourism and outdoor recreation sector's involvement in the LRMP process (Edwards-Craig, 2003). The second category is called **Integrated Resource Management Zones (RMZs)** that include three sub-categories: enhanced, general, and special management (Edwards-Craig, 2003). **Enhanced zones** represent the 16% of the province that is primarily designated to improving forestry values and productivity (Edwards-Craig, 2003). **General zones** currently represent 23% of the provincial landmass that is managed for multiple uses requiring operational tenures, permits and leases for a wide range of resource activities including backcountry tourism and outdoor recreation (Edwards-Craig, 2003). And finally, **Special management zones** emphasize conservation while accommodating various resource uses (Edwards-Craig, 2003). The goal of this zone is to integrate various conservation values including those associated with tourism and backcountry recreation (Edwards-Craig, 2003). Any resource extraction in special management zones must be consistent with the special conservation goals for this zone laid out in part by the backcountry tourism and outdoor recreation sectors through the planning process (Edwards-Craig, 2003). Currently, 14% of the province is allocated to this zone (Edwards-Craig, 2003). The third category of land zone is **Agriculture / Settlement Zones** (Edwards-Craig, 2003). LRMPs are guided by the principles of provincial land use objectives to provide a management framework that guides lower level plans which are reflective of regional needs (Edwards-Craig, 2003). The result is a land use management plan that integrates the principles of sustainability, the provincial land use objectives, and the needs of regional communities towards more inclusive and representative land use planning and management (Edwards-Craig, 2003). The role of the LRMP in the provincial land use-planning framework is described in **Figure 9** (Edwards-Craig, 2003).

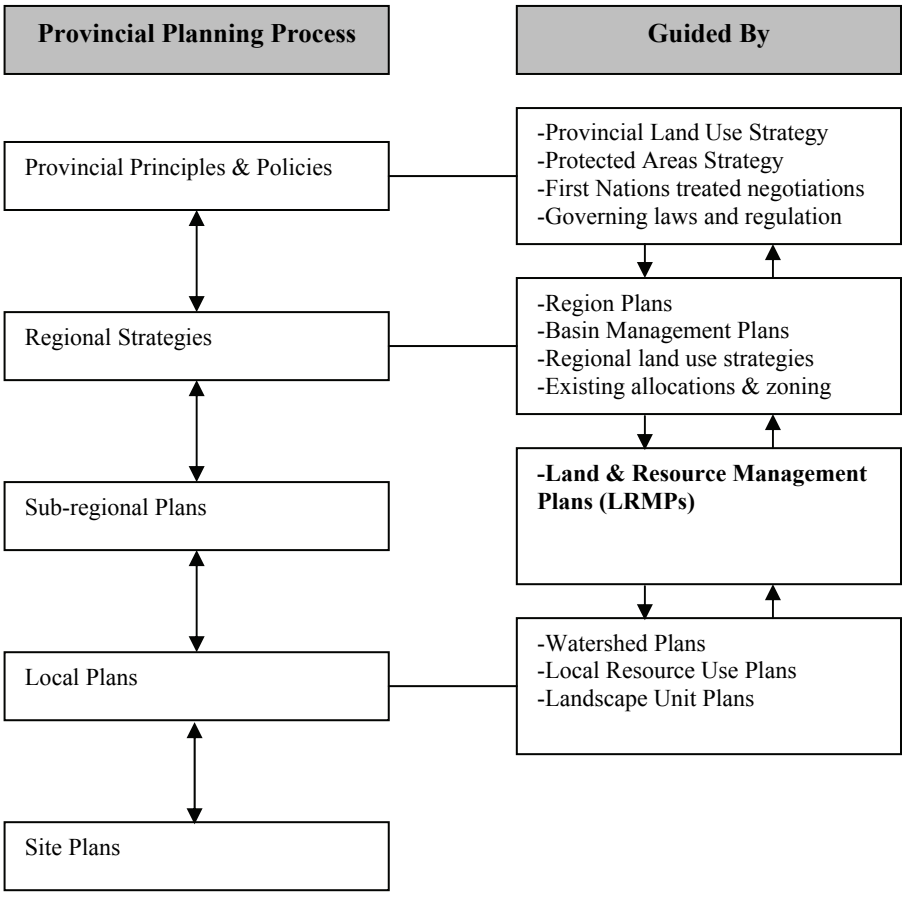


Figure 9 LRMP in the Provincial Land Use Framework
Source: Edwards-Craig, 2003, p.45

2.6.1.4 Laws and regulations

The Forest and Range Practices Act (FRPA) and its regulations govern the activities of forest and range licensees in BC (BCG, FRPA). The statute sets the requirements for planning, road building, logging, reforestation, and grazing (BCG, FRPA). FRPA maintains high levels of protection for forest values including watersheds and wildlife habitat, and creates efficiencies for both government and industry through streamlined planning processes (BCG, FRPA). FRPA encourages innovation by skilled resource professionals and holds industry responsible for outcomes (BCG, FRPA). Combined with rigorous compliance and enforcement, the

Act and regulations will contribute to high quality forest management and sustainable environmental values for future generations (BCG, FRPA).

Provincial Forest Use Regulation (PFUR) determines the ways in which forest lands should be used in BC (BCG, PFUR). The Article 3 of PFUR identifies the primary uses in provincial forests as "commercial recreation uses and facilities and ancillary improvements" that include ski facilities, hunting lodges, fishing lodges, and trails (BCG, PFUR). According to this article, the permitted facilities in forests of BC are limited by types of activity and in scale (BCG, PFUR).

Considering institutional organizations, tourism and environment strategies and legal arrangements in BC, it is possible to conclude that sustainability is an important concern for the province. It is also fundamental to develop federal and provincial strategies to create a sustainable environment. The specialization of and the coordination between public institutions is another significant issue. Besides public-private partnerships, non-governmental organizations play a significant role in determining the policies of tourism and environment sectors by participating decision-making processes. The adopting and supporting of non-governmental organizations and/or local communities are vital for the feasibility of the produced policies.

2.6.2 Queensland, Australia

Australia is a country popular as a tourism destination, being ranked 10th in the world in terms of international tourism receipts (US $13 billion dollars in international tourism receipts in 2004) (QG, 2006). Compared to international tourism receipts, Australia's share of world visitor arrivals remains relatively small at 0,7%, reflecting the country's status as mainly a long-haul destination, although its inbound tourism is growing substantially faster than the world average (QG, 2006). In 2003 and 2004, inbound tourism accounted for $7,6 billion of Australia's GDP, more than 5% increase over the previous year's contribution (QG, 2006). Australia is facing increasing competition from New Zealand and emerging Asian destinations

for visitors from the lucrative Chinese and Indian markets, which are forecast to experience strong growth over the next 10 years (QG, 2006). Tourism is an important export earner for Australia, representing 12% of the total exports of goods and services, with international visitors consuming $17,3 billion worth of goods and services during 2003 and 2004 (QG, 2006). It also provides work for many Australians, employing approximately 537,000 people in 2003 and 2004, almost half of whom were employed in the retail, accommodation, cafes and restaurants sector (QG, 2006).

Queensland, occupying the north-eastern section of the mainland continent, is one of the biggest states of Australia. Tourism is a very important sector in the Queensland economy, as the state's world heritage areas, expansive national park estate, and internationally renowned natural areas, such as the Wet Tropics, the Great Barrier Reef and Fraser Island, draw over 16 million visitors a year (QG, 2006). Over the past decade, tourism has emerged as one of Queensland's fastest growing export industries (QG, 2006). It is currently the State's third largest export earner, contributing $3,1 billion annually to the economy (QG, 2006). At a broader level, tourism is a key driver of economic growth in Queensland, generating $8,4 billion for the State's economy and accounting for 5,8% of Queensland's Gross State Product (GSP) in 2003 and 2004 (QG, 2006). It is a significant employer of Queenslanders, providing approximately 136,000 jobs (i.e. 7,3% of all Queensland jobs) (QG, 2006). Like BC, the most important tourism market for Queensland is the local market. Day trippers and overnight visitors in Queensland spend $18 billion annually (**Figure 10**) (QG, 2006).

Approximately two-thirds of land tenure in Queensland is leasehold (**Figure 11**). The wadge of 'Other Tenures' that constitutes 0,29% of total land tenure in Queensland includes Commonwealth[12] lands; and the wadge of 'Other Reserves' constituting 6,59% of total land tenure is made up of State forest, timber reserves and national parks (QG, DNRW, 2009).

[12] An association of 53 independent states consulting and co-operating in the common interests of their peoples and in the promotion of international understanding. Australia joined the Commonwealth in 1931.

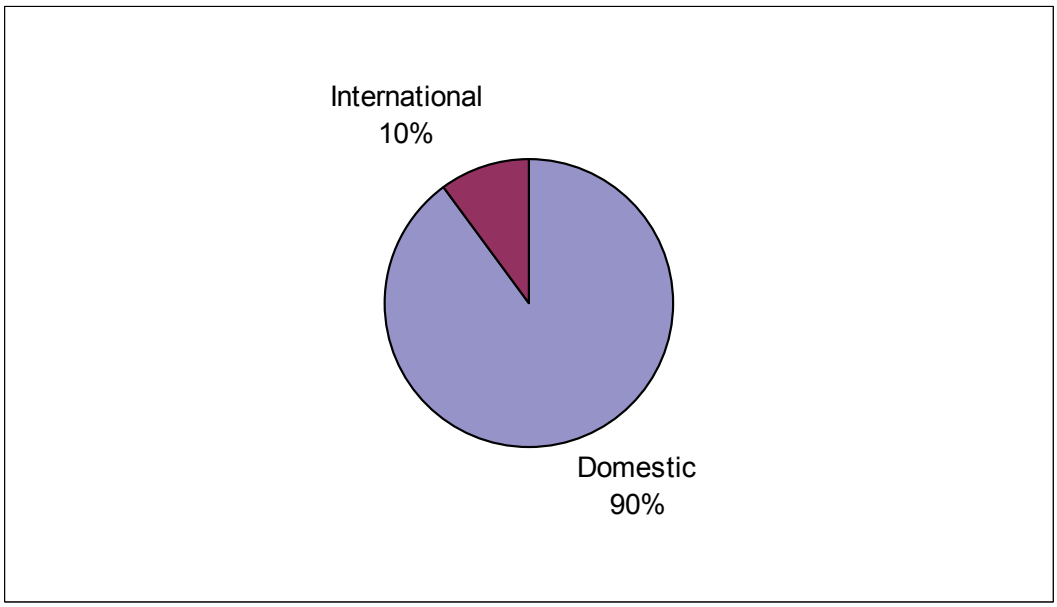


Figure 10 Overnight Visitors to Queensland
Source: Riley et al., 2003, p.95

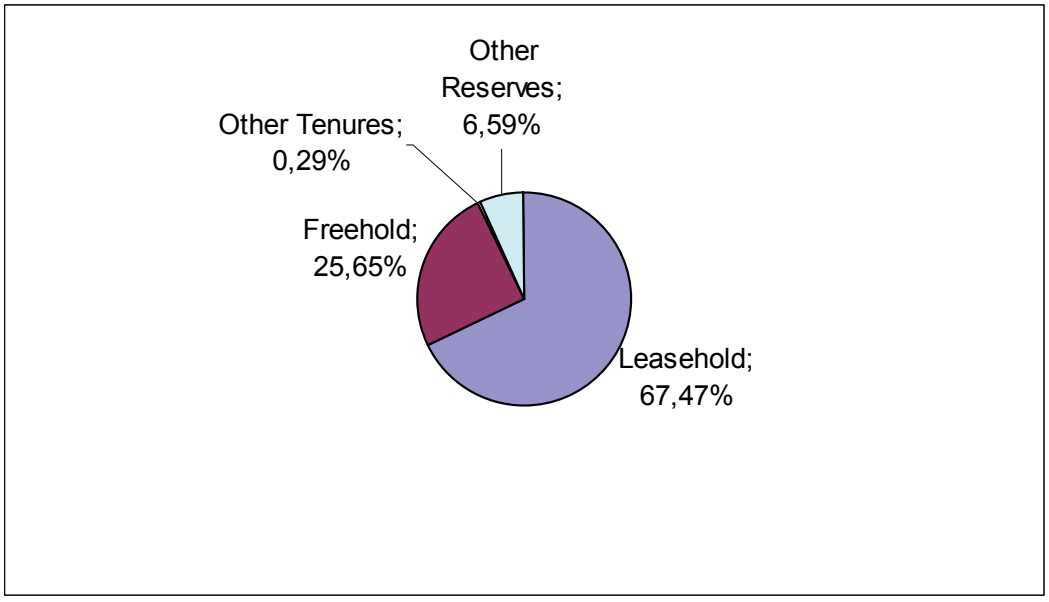


Figure 11 Land Tenure in Queensland
Source: QG, DNRW, 2009, p.26

2.6.2.1 Institutional organization of tourism and environment sectors

In Australia, public sector is made up of commonwealth, state, territory and local governments. Most protected areas of the country are managed by State and Territory governments, while some are managed or co-managed by Commonwealth and local governments, and some are privately owned and managed. (Buckley, 2002)

Under the Commonwealth Government, there are three major departments dealing with tourism and environment sectors, one of which is the **Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts (DEWHA).** DEWHA develops and implements national policy, programs and legislation to protect and conserve Australia's environment and heritage and to promote Australian arts and culture (AG, DEWHA). The second institution is the **Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry (DAFF)** whose role is to develop and implement policies and programs that ensure Australia's agricultural, fisheries, food and forestry industries remain competitive, profitable and sustainable (AG, DAFF). Finally, **Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism (DRET)** provides advice and policy support to the Australian Government regarding Australia's resources, energy and tourism sectors (AG, DRET). The Department develops and delivers policies to increase Australia's international competitiveness, consistent with the principles of environmental responsibility and sustainable development. (AG, DRET)

Under the State Government of Queensland, there are a number of agencies involved in tourism and environment sectors. One of them is **Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)** which is responsible for managing climate change and protecting the environment (QG, EPA). **Queensland Parks and Wildlife Service (QPWS)** is a department under EPA in order to conserve and manage the EPA Estate to build resilience in natural systems and provide safe, substantial and sustainable benefits to the Queensland community (QG, EPA). It manages more than 11 million hectares of land (including national parks, conservation parks, resources reserves, State forests and forest reserves) across the State on behalf of Queenslanders (QG, EPA, 2004). QPWS has a wide variety of neighbours, including rural landholders and primary

producers, tourism resorts and guesthouses, industrial and commercial businesses, many different types of residential communities and various government lands (QG, EPA, 2004). Land adjacent to 'QPWS-managed lands' is used for a wide range of purposes, including grazing, agricultural production, conservation, recreation, resource extraction, and tourism and residential development (QG, EPA, 2004). In recent years, many QPWS-managed lands have become "islands" of remnant vegetation, with crops, houses or cleared grazing land adjacent to the boundary (QG, EPA, 2004). QPWS aims to involve neighbours in the development of management plans and strategies for QPWS-managed lands, to ensure that the interests and rights of landholders are considered and that QPWS plans are co-ordinated as far as possible with planning and management activities on other lands (QG, EPA, 2004). It invites community and local government involvement when preparing management plans for QPWS-managed lands and in promoting awareness and understanding of natural and cultural heritage (QG, EPA, 2004). Likewise, local governments and developers of land adjacent to QPWS-managed lands are urged to consider QPWS interests in their planning and to be mindful of potential interactions between new residents, natural systems and native wildlife (QG, EPA, 2004). For example, construction of housing or tourist facilities directly adjacent to park boundaries can be a challenge for fire management on the park and may expose inhabitants to wildlife that they may find threatening or a nuisance (QG, EPA, 2004).

Another important agency under the State Government is **Tourism in Protected Areas (TIPA) Initiative**, providing a more efficient, effective and equitable system of sustainable tourism management in Queensland's protected areas (QG, 2006). TIPA Initiative allows for commercial activity agreements to be negotiated between the QPWS and tourism operators – a significant advance in the management of these protected areas in Queensland (QG, 2006).

Tourism Queensland (TQ) is a statutory authority of the Queensland Government whose mission is to enhance the development and marketing of Queensland tourism destinations in partnership with Industry, Government and the Community (TQ).

The **Department of Natural Resources and Water (NRW)** is another important agecy which plays a critical role in the stewardship of Queensland's natural resources (QG, DNRW). The department manages and allocates the state's land and water resources, and manages native vegetation and the use and sale of native forest resources (QG, DNRW). NRW administers about 71% of Queensland under the Land Act 1994 (**Figure 12**). State land, administered by NRW, excludes freehold land, Commonwealth land and land administered under the Nature Conservation Act 1992 (QG, DNRW).

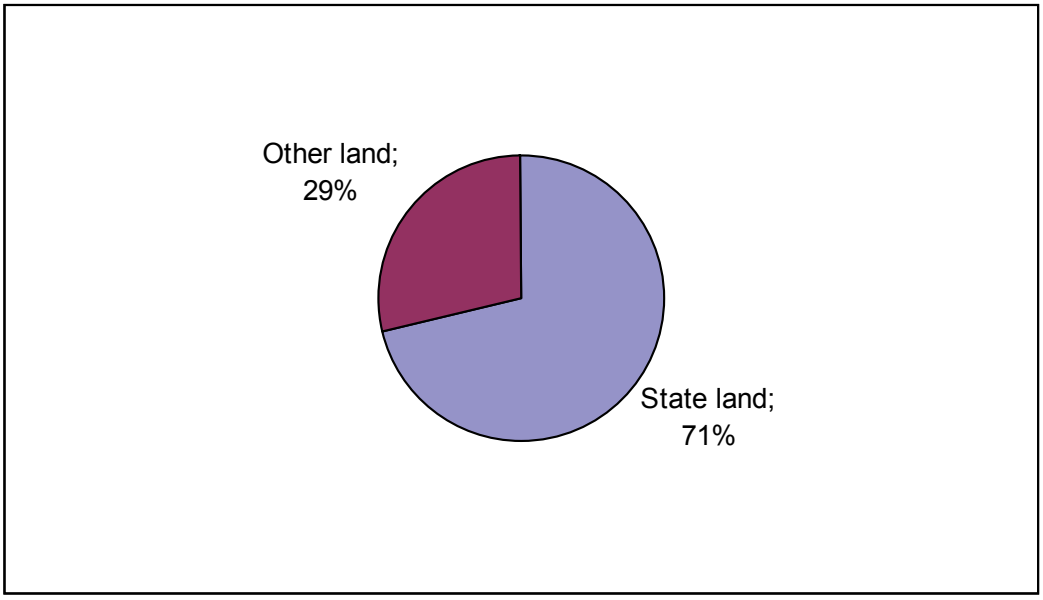


Figure 12 Land Base in Queensland
Source: www.nrw.qld.gov.au

The State Government leases include:

- large pastoral leases in the northern and western parts of the state,
- grazing leases in more intensively farmed areas from the coastal belt to the center of the state,
- leases for commercial or industrial purposes,
- leases for large tourism complexes over Queensland islands or prime sites,
- leases that allow various types of developments (e.g. large housing estates), that are then sold as freehold blocks,

- leases of land below high water mark,
- leases of reserves, e.g. to a sporting organization or club (QG, DNRW).

The main types of State lease are:

- term leases (granted for 1–100 years)
- perpetual leases (held by the lessee in perpetuity—not for 99 years as commonly believed)
- freeholding leases (where freehold title has been approved, but the lessee is paying off the purchase price and the freehold title will not issue until this is fully paid) (QG, DNRW).

The lessee of a State lease must pay annual rent to the State (QG, DNRW). The current rates are indicated in **Table 4**. Some term or perpetual leases issued under the Land Act 1994 may be considered for conversion to freehold (QG, DNRW)

Table 4 Annual Rents of State Leases

Category	**Land use**	**% of UV[a)]**
1	Grazing and agriculture	1.5
2	Intensive (non-broad hectare) primary production	3
3.1	Residential/rural residential	3
3.2	Private (non-commercial) uses	3
4	Commercial/industrial	5
5	Industrial	5
6	Charitable and non-commercial community service organizations	0.5
7	Communication sites	5
8.1	Public utilities	1
8.2	Government held tenures	5
9.1	**Tourism—mainland**	**5**
9.2	**Tourism—island**	**4**
10	Sporting and recreation	1 to 5

a) UV: Unimproved value

Source: QG, DNRW

2.6.2.2 Other actors / stakeholders active in tourism and environment sectors

In Australia in general and in Queensland in particular, apart from commonwealth and state government agencies, private sector, NGOs and communities are actively involved in the decision-making processes of tourism developments. Private sector developers and companies constitute one of the important stakeholder groups in tourism sector.

Buckley (2002) defines four main partnerships between tourism and protected areas:

1. **Private tourism on private land:** For private tourism ventures in private protected areas, it is probably most common for the landholder to also own the tourism business. However, this is by no means necessarily so. A private landholder may lease part of their estate to an independent tourism operator, as in fact occurs in some large rural properties in Australia.
2. **Public tourism on private land:** This approach is very little used in Australia. It would be feasible for public protected-area management agencies to lease adjacent areas of private land in order to establish and operate publicly-owned visitor facilities.
3. **Public tourism on public land:** Management agencies for national parks and other public lands in most countries have a long history of providing visitor services and infrastructure, at least in more heavily-visited areas. Public land management agencies have provided recreational opportunities as a public service, not as a commercial or revenue-raising venture. Where fees have been charged, they have rarely been intended to recover even operational administrative costs. In consequence, parks have not been perceived as part of the tourism sector, either by their management agencies, tour operators or the general public.
4. **Private tourism on public land:** The fourth major type of partnership between tourism and protected areas is between private tourism operators and public land management agencies. This is probably the most common category of partnership. Arguably, it is likely to be most efficient, in that it combines the business skills of commercial tourism operators with the land management skills of protected area agencies. (Buckley, 2002)

The second and fourth of these options constitute public-private partnerships in protected areas. Public-private partnerships for tourism in and around protected areas are currently somewhat controversial in Australia (Buckley, 2004). They deserve careful consideration, however, since in the right circumstances they may generate advantages for both tourism and conservation (Buckley, 2004). Perhaps the most

critical advantages for conservation are firstly, the potential for tourism opportunities to mobilize private landholders adjoining public protected areas, and secondly, the opportunity for private sector investors to gain access to development capital in a way which is rarely practicable for public protected area management agencies (Buckley, 2004).

Mainstream tourism industry associations now recognise protected areas and other public lands as a vital asset for national tourism industries (Buckley, 2002). Still, private sector is strictly controlled by the government agencies (as well as NGOs and communities) in terms of their development projects as far as environment is concerned. In this sense, a tourist resort development on Green Island, a small coral island cay on the Great Barrier Reef, 27 kilometres east of Cairns, provides an interesting example. A development company decided to venture this island to construct a new resort in an effort to upgrade the existing old and degrading facilities (Herbert and Busby, 1995). The Green Island Project of the company had two integrated components: a resort hotel comprising 46 rooms with separate facilities and a public day use visitor area adjacent to the main beach (Herbert and Busby, 1995). The Cairns City Council produced a policy plan for the island which addressed several building approval issues (Herbert and Busby, 1995). Based on this policy plan, a team of design consultants of the company worked together with various local and state government officials, and produced the Green Island Management Plan, accompanied with a design brief (Herbert and Busby, 1995). The Plan set out how this development was to take place in this fragile reef environment; established a carrying capacity for the island, sought to minimise the impact of the built environment; and it stipulated that all existing and future users must have easy access to the island facilities and reef in general (Herbert and Busby, 1995). The main task confronting the design team was how to integrate the buildings with the existing natural forest (Herbert and Busby, 1995). This involved the preparation of a detailed tree survey of the lease area whereby all existing trees were recorded and classified according to species type, trunk diameter, overall height, condition (health) and status (Herbert and Busby, 1995). Trees were numbered via aluminium tags and a computerised plot of their location was produced to overlay the site base plan

(Herbert and Busby, 1995). Special attention was given to locating groups of small trees and demarcating them as conservation zones (Herbert and Busby, 1995). The retention of such zones, together with planted stock, would contribute to the maintenance of the existing forest structure and its mixture of size classes (Herbert and Busby, 1995).

The tree survey provided the basic information with which to locate the proposed buildings and their accompanying infrastructure (Herbert and Busby, 1995). Individual buildings were deliberately small in scale to reduce their impact on the environment and allow them to fit amongst the trees (Herbert and Busby, 1995). Wherever possible, structures were sited where existing (demolished) buildings were located and in existing forest clearings (Herbert and Busby, 1995). Maximum site coverage was limited to 30% of the lease area. Building height was limited to two storeys-no higher that the tree canopy-and 250 m² was the maximum allowable area for any one building (Herbert and Busby, 1995). In addition to the buildings, the project brought about a significant amount of landscape works which involved the planting of approximately 6,000 plants representing 60 indigenous species (Herbert and Busby, 1995).

One of the significant aspects of the Green Island case in terms of sustainable tourism planning is its plan and thus development which rely upon allowing the island's natural qualities to dominate, with the buildings and infrastructure playing a secondary role (Herbert and Busby, 1995). Another important aspect is the participatory and collaborative planning process. The Green Island Management Plan, together with Cairns City Council's Policy Plan, provided the basic environmental and design guidelines which had to interact with the client's brief in order for the development to be designed, approved and constructed (Herbert and Busby, 1995). This involved a continuing process of consultation with the Council plus a number of other stakeholders and government agencies (Herbert and Busby, 1995).

QCC (2002) recommends that government may not be the most appropriate body to provide the extension services to support the nature conservation program for leasehold lands. They propose that consideration be given to contracting a non-government organization (NGO) to provide these services (QCC, 2002). An NGO has the advantage of being able to negotiate with leaseholders "against the backdrop of government regulation, while still remaining committed to a philosophy of voluntariness and cooperation… By contrast, government will never be able to escape completely from being perceived in terms of its regulatory persona, even where it approaches with offerings rather than threats" (QCC, 2002). In addition, an NGO may have advantages in being able to generate greater trust by landholders, being more flexible, generating independent funds and adopting more innovative and rapidly evolving approaches (QCC, 2002).

Head and Ryan (2003) examine two case studies of the changing relationship between government and non-government organizations (NGOs) in the formulation of environmental policy in Queensland, namely Regional Forestry Agreement in South-East Queensland and Protection of the Great Barrier Reef (GBR). These case studies go beyond the usual conceptualisations of government/NGO partnerships (Head and Ryan, 2003). The ordinary language of partnerships does not quite describe the extent to which NGOs and other stakeholders are being incorporated into decision-making processes (Head and Ryan, 2003). The common elements of these cases may include persistence, purposefulness, information-richness and sensitivity, inclusiveness and flexibility (Head and Ryan, 2003). They illustrate the emergence of a more inclusive, adaptive and corporatist approach to government-NGO relationships, but involving the participation of many more stakeholders than is usually associated with "corporatist" forms of governance (Head and Ryan, 2003). Moreover, it is notable that the new regional arrangements are not explicitly democratic-representative forms of governance, as regional body membership is by invitation not by election (Head and Ryan, 2003). The institutional arrangements created to resolve these environmental issues also go beyond structures normally created to facilitate public-private partnerships (Head and Ryan, 2003). These arrangements represent a form of co-governance, which includes both the

planning/prioritising and implementation dimensions (Head and Ryan, 2003). Whereas government is often the arbitrator in environmental disputes, this form of co-governance changes the role of government to framework-setter, co-funder and facilitator, representing an adaptive form of public management (Head and Ryan, 2003). Governance is managed through a strategic framework of cooperation rather than primarily through regulatory and legal mandate (Head and Ryan, 2003). This direction is broadly consistent with the growing literature on "governance" that emphasises the role of trust and mutual adjustment in sustaining policy and delivery networks that are largely managed by non-government actors (Head and Ryan, 2003). However, it must be emphasised in these cases that the role of government remains critical in establishing program direction, boundaries and resourcing (Head and Ryan, 2003). For government, these new regional institutional arrangements have the potential advantage of moving the responsibility for resolving intractable public policy problems from the government to a broader range of stakeholders (Head and Ryan, 2003). These two cases relate to big complex issues involving multiple stakeholders, with regional differences in problem-identification and strategic responses (Head and Ryan, 2003). Regional governance arrangements created to address these environmental issues will move responsibility from government to regional bodies, incorporating multiple stakeholders (Head and Ryan, 2003). In addition, these institutional arrangements provide an integrative mechanism by which governments are able to co-opt NGO and community leaders in seeking to change the behaviour of stakeholders, especially landholders (Head and Ryan, 2003).

Finally, when community involvement in the decision-making process regarding tourism development is concerned, one can notice that Australians have a high level of environment awareness. That’s why, in a number of well-known instances, the tourism development proposals have met with very severe public opposition (Buckley, 2002). For example, when the South Australian government proposed construction of a resort and golf course within Wilpena Pound National Park in the Flinders Ranges, it was met first with a court case under its own legislation; and when it subsequently proposed to amend the legislation, was met with such concerted public opposition that it was compelled to withdraw the proposal (Buckley, 2002).

Similarly, when the Victorian government proposed construction of an upmarket hotel and other tourist facilities in the park campground at Tidal River in Wilson's Promontory National Park, with associated infrastructure in the park, it received over 3,500 public submissions of which 98% opposed the proposal (Buckley, 2002). This is apparently the largest number of submissions on any government plan in Victoria (Buckley, 2002). All these examples show that the community acts as a strong baywatch of environment.

The involvement of all Australians is vital to the conservation of biological diversity (AG, DE, 1996). Initiatives already being taken at the community level can be catalysed by a variety of integrated measures that increase awareness and involvement (AG, DE, 1996). These need to be supported by further opportunities in formal education institutions to develop an understanding of the importance of the conservation of biological diversity (AG, DE, 1996). Extending that awareness to the development of a sense of community involvement and action is an essential progression (AG, DE, 1996). Everybody has a role to play in the conservation of biological diversity, by providing expertise and assistance at a variety of levels in a range of voluntary activities (AG, DE, 1996). It may be managing a backyard or local park, taking part in a conservation-related work program, participating in a statutory planning process, contributing to research, survey and monitoring programs, or otherwise contributing at a local, regional, national or international level (AG, DE, 1996). In order to conserve biological diversity, greater public involvement and participation should be facilitated by;

a) ensuring that public participation is a meaningful component in planning and environmental impact assessment procedures that involve biological diversity conservation;

b) increasing community involvement in research and management activities relating to protected areas and vegetation remnants and in biological diversity programs, particularly those involving survey, revegetation and rehabilitation (AG, DE, 1996).

On the other hand, a key objective of Queensland Tourism Strategy is to foster greater community involvement in setting desirable growth outcomes for tourism and promoting awareness of the benefits of tourism (QG, 2006). Community engagement in planning the future of tourism is critical to creating sustainable communities (QG, 2006). The role of tourism in the community is recognised in the Strategy's fourth goal (QG, 2006).

Identical to First Nations of Canada mentioned in the previous sections of the study, the indigenous peoples of Australia have some extra rights and privileges in the legislation. Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people have a special relationship with the lands that make up the QPWS estate, both as traditional owners and custodians of their cultural heritage and as neighbours and members of local communities (QG, EPA, 2004).

Queensland Conservation Council (2002) have discussed the background to native title on leasehold lands and proposed principles to guide the State Government in developing a fair and effective way of recognising and promoting the rights and interests of traditional owners in leasehold lands.

It is the groups' position that native title is possessory title with various dependent rights and interests flowing from traditional ownership (QCC, 2002). However, the Native Title Act has taken a narrow 'bundle of rights' approach and in their view is a partial, unfairly limiting and discriminatory framework (QCC, 2002). In the interests of land justice, the Queensland Government should take a more considered public policy position (QCC, 2002). Genuine certainty in matters of tenure and economic development should be achieved on the basis of substantial agreement between traditional owners, the State and other parties (QCC, 2002). A cooperative, negotiated approach over time offers the possibility of a more considered, just and creative response to changes flowing from the recognition of native title and avoids the use of what are regarded as racially discriminatory provisions of the current Native Title Act (QCC, 2002). They therefore recommend that a properly

enfranchising and resourced agreement building process take place over the next four years (QCC, 2002).

In the present circumstances they consider that the Indigenous Land Use Agreement provisions of the Native Title Act should be placed at the center of a legal strategy to limit the adverse effects of the Native Title Act (QCC, 2002). This will also enable a better approach to tenure resolution, land management and productivity issues, and ecological and cultural maintenance (QCC, 2002).

2.6.2.3 Sustainable tourism and environment strategy in general and sustainable forest strategy in particular

At the Commonwealth Government level, the most important strategy document is **National Strategy for Ecologically Sustainable Development (NSESD)** that was adopted by the DEWHA in 1992 (AG, DEWHA). NSESD that provides broad strategic directions and framework for governments to direct policy and decision-making for ecologically sustainable development, addresses many key areas for action identified in Agenda 21 (AG, DEWHA). A chapter of NSESD is entitled as 'Forest Resource Use and Management' in which the main objectives for forests are identified as follows:

- to manage and utilise Australia's forest estate for all forest values on an ecologically sustainable basis,
- to maintain ecological processes within the forests, maintain biodiversity, and optimise benefits to the community from all uses, within ecological constraints,
- to enhance the quality of life for successive generations of Australians by protecting and enhancing all of the values available from Australia's forests, and development of an ecologically sustainable and internationally competitive forest products industry (AG, DEWHA).

The second important document is **Inter-Governmental Agreement on the Environment (IGAE)** which was made in 1992, defines the roles of respective

governments, endorses ESD, and provides a mechanism to determine respective management interests (Avery, 2001).

Another significant document is **National Forest Policy Statement (NFPS),** issued in 1992. The 1992 NFPS which is the blueprint for the future of public and private forests, reaffirmed all government's commitment to the management of forests for all Australians (AG, DAFF). In developing the NFPS the Commonwealth, State and Territory Governments have been mindful of the many conservation values of Australia's forests, and of the contribution that forest-based activities make to the national economy and regional and local employment (AG, DAFF). This is reflected in **Regional Forest Agreements (RFAs)** which define how a region's forests are to be sustainably used, conserved and managed for 20 years (AG, DAFF). The Agreements provide certainty for forest-based industries, forest-dependent communities and conservation (AG, DAFF). They are the result of years of scientific study, consultation and negotiation covering a diverse range of interests (AG, DAFF). For South-East Queensland, the Commonwealth and State Governments completed a Comprehensive Regional Assessment (CRA), but did not sign an RFA (AG, DAFF).

At the State Government level, **Queensland Tourism Strategy (QTS)** lays the foundation for the coordinated and sustainable development of tourism in Queensland, and gives industry and government the vision, goals, targets and actions to meet the challenges and opportunities facing the industry over the next 10 years (QG, 2006). The Strategy is based on a number of themes, and contains practical action plans for each theme regarding i) coordination, partnerships and community engagement, ii) investment, infrastructure and access, iii) workforce development, iv) developing and marketing a Queensland style visitor experience, v) natural environment and culture, and vi) future insights and research (QG, 2006). One of these themes is '**natural environment and culture**', which includes a range of actions to enhance the relationship between the tourism industry, protected area managers and the conservation sector and build a sustainable competitive advantage for the Queensland tourism industry (QG, 2006).

At the State Government level, **Property Management Plan (PMP)** is the main document, which identifies a process for documenting property resources and management practices, and designing property changes (QG, DNRW, 2003). The end result is a farm plan, property plan or property management plan that can be used to:

- assist in developing and managing a property sustainably and profitably
- record information and decisions that demonstrate a duty of care to the environment and natural resources (QG, DNRW, 2003).

A property management plan should consist of four main components dealing with natural resource management, human resource management, financial management, and production and marketing (QG, DNRW, 2003)

According to the IGAE, "it is the role of government to establish the policy, legislative and administrative framework to determine the permissibility of any land use, resource use or development proposal having regard to the appropriate, efficient and ecologically sustainable use of natural resources (including land, coastal and marine resources)" (QCC, 2002). The environment groups recommend that, as part of this responsibility, the Queensland Government sets out clearly the framework for management of the Queensland leasehold estate in a State Public Lands Policy for Rural Leasehold with legislative force under the Land Act (QCC, 2002). As a result, the conservation groups (Queensland Conservation Council, The Wilderness Society, Australian Conservation Foundation, Cairns and Far North Environment Center, North Queensland Conservation Council, Mackay Conservation Group, Wide Bay and Burnett Conservation Council, Capricorn Conservation Council, Gold Coast and Hinterland Environment Council, Toowoomba and Region Environment Council) recommend that the blueprint for change in management of the leasehold estate is set out in a state leasehold policy, which they refer to as **the State Public Lands Policy for Leasehold** (QCC, 2002). The conservation groups propose the following six-step process to develop an integrated and ecologically sustainable approach to leasehold management:

A. Development of a State Public Lands Policy for Rural Leasehold.
B. Development of regional leasehold plans.
C. Rationalisation of primary land uses of leasehold lands.
D. Development of management principles and criteria for leasehold properties in production.
E. Negotiation of lease agreements on land designated primarily for production.
F. Development of management arrangements for off-reserve conservation areas. (QCC, 2002)

These groups support diversification of land use on leasehold lands in principle as a means of reducing pressure on grazing lands; suggest that there should be consideration of leasing or sub-leasing of leasehold lands for other primary land uses; and strongly support leases for conservation purposes, as a primary production activity, and ecotourism purposes (QCC, 2002). These groups also consider that as leasehold lands are public lands, greater public access to leasehold lands should be allowed (QCC, 2002). Public access should not be open access, but selective and well managed access (QCC, 2002). They caution that badly managed recreation on leasehold lands could be environmentally damaging (QCC, 2002). Additionally, the conservation groups strongly oppose the freeholding of rural leasehold land; and support retaining the leasehold system and discouraging conversion to freehold tenures (QCC, 2002). Furthermore, they suggest that public investment in leasehold lands should pass a 'public benefit' test; this test would include the criteria that investment should promote ecological sustainability (QCC, 2002).

2.6.2.4 Laws and regulations

Two Commonwealth Acts have been devised to cover environmental principles (Avery, 2001):

Environment Protection Act: This is proposed to replace the Environmental Protection (Impact of Proposals) Act 1974 (EPIP Act) (Avery, 2001). Although the National Strategy for ESD was endorsed in the 1992 IGAE, the existing EPIP Act doesn't contain Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) and approval processes that conform to contemporary international standards or could hope to achieve ESD (Avery, 2001).

Biodiversity Conservation Act: This would replace several Acts including the National Parks and Wildlife Conservation Act 1975 and importantly the World Heritage Properties Conservation Act 1983 (Avery, 2001). The Act would provide legislation to support the National Strategy for the Conservation of Australia's Biological Diversity and complement the Natural Heritage Trust, which acts to conserve biodiversity (Avery, 2001). ESD is reliant on maintenance of biodiversity (Avery, 2001). The Act would also recognize the importance of community participation in management plans and recovery plans (Avery, 2001).

Legislation in Queensland has moved towards the integrated approach to the environment, as envisaged by international conventions and national strategies (Avery, 2001). The main overarching State legislation, which impacts on land use, and potentially cultural landscapes, is summarized below (Avery, 2001):

Integrated Planning Act 1997 (IPA): The object of the IPA is to integrate all administrative levels of planning in the State to achieve ecologically sustainable development (Avery, 2001). The Planning Scheme should be strategic and incorporate appropriate local area planning to create a framework for future land use and development (Avery, 2001). All local governments will need to produce a Planning Scheme within five years (Avery, 2001). The schemes must incorporate State and regional 'core matters' (including land use planning policies, infrastructure and 'valuable features') with the interests of local communities (Avery, 2001).

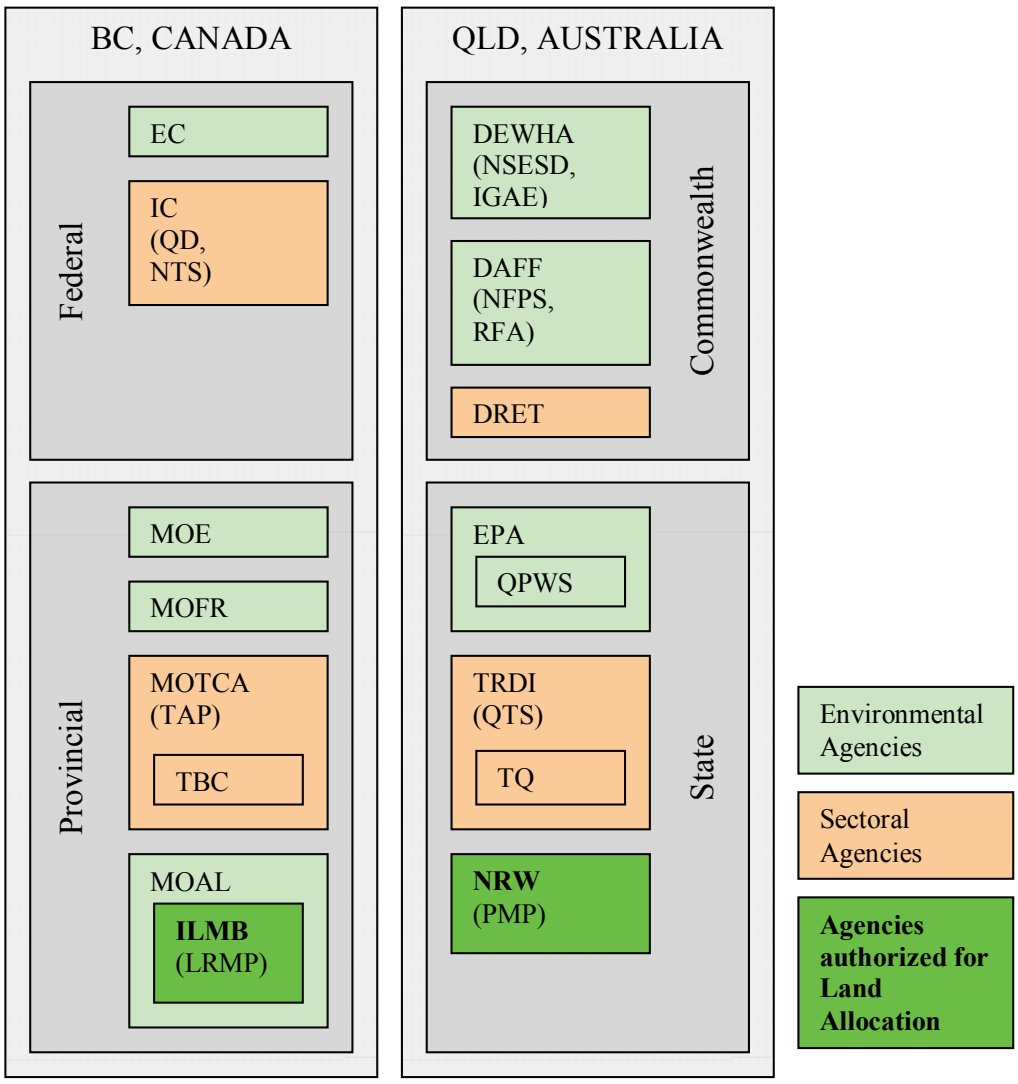
Nature Conservation Act 1992: This Act covers the designation and management of 11 types of protected areas, most of which are National Parks (Avery, 2001). Both natural and cultural resources are expected to be researched, managed sustainably, and it endorses the cooperative involvement of all interested communities and landholders (Avery, 2001). The Act also calls for the implementation of a statewide conservation strategy, covering all tenures, to protect the State's flora and fauna, biodiversity, natural and cultural features and wilderness (Avery, 2001).

Environmental Protection Act 1994: The object of this Act is ecologically sustainable development, which implies a duty of environmental care and covers all land tenures (Avery, 2001). The object is to be achieved through an integrated management program which researches the state of the environment, decides on values to be protected (through consultation), develops policies, integrates policies into land use planning, and reviews, evaluates and reports on the results (Avery, 2001).

Land Act 1994: This Act covers the administration of Crown and leasehold land (Avery, 2001). Provisions mostly cover the management of natural resources, but one of its objects includes the protection of environmentally and culturally valuable and sensitive areas and features (Avery, 2001). The Act allows for easements and covenants (Avery, 2001). For unallocated State Land, agreements can be made under the headings:

- reserves;
- deeds of grant in trust
    - for community purposes
    - for amalgamating land with common purposes; and
- deeds of grant in trust for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples (Avery, 2001).

Exactly like British Columbia, sustainability is an important concern for Queensland too. Both Commonwealth and State Governments have been seeking the ways to create sustainable forests (**Figure 13**). In addition, private sector, non-governmental organizations and local communities effectively participate decision-making processes of these regions.



Canada

BC	British Columbia
EC	Environment Canada
IC	Industry Canada
ILMB	Integrated Land Management Bureau (of MOAL)
LRMP	Land and Resource Management Plan (by ILMB)
MOAL	Ministry of Agriculture and Lands
MOE	Ministry of Environment
MOFR	Ministry of Forests and Range
MOTCA	Ministry of Tourism, Culture and the Arts
NTS	National Tourism Strategy (by IC)
QD	Quebec Declaration (by IC)
TAP	Tourism Action Plan (by MOTCA)
TBC	Tourism British Columbia (of MOTCA)

Australia

DAFF	Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry
DEWHA	Department of the Environment, Water, Heritage and the Arts
DRET	Department of Resources, Energy and Tourism
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
IGAE	Inter-Governmental Agreement on the Environment (by DEWHA)
NFPS	National Forest Policy Statement (by DAFF)
NRW	Department of Natural Resources and Water
NSESD	National Strategy for Ecologically Sustainable Development (by DEWHA)
PMP	Property Management Plan (by NRW)
QLD	Queensland
QPWS	Queensland Parks and Wildlife Service (of EPA)
QTS	Queensland Tourism Strategy (by TRDI)
RFA	Regional Forest Agreement (by DAFF)
TQ	Tourism Queensland (of TRDI)
TRDI	Department of Tourism, Regional Development and Industry

Figure 13 Public Institutional Structures of the Study Areas

2.7 Concluding remarks

Based on an extensive literature review, and the investigation on the institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal dimensions of tourism planning in forest lands of Canada and Australia, two countries advanced in sustainable tourism planning, this chapter has examined the concepts of 'sustainability', 'sustainable development', 'sustainable forest management' and 'sustainable tourism planning' in order to draw a theoretical framework for the investigation of sustainability in forest lands allocated and used for the purpose of tourism in Turkey. The investigation has revealed that sustainability, wherever applicable, requires the integration of economic, socio-cultural and environmental policies and measures. That is to say, regarding the forest management, it embraces not only the preservation of essential ecological processes, protection of human heritage and bio-diversity, but also planning the use of forest lands and its resources to provide long-term economic liveliness and benefits for nations and localities, and thus to improve the quality of life of local communities in accordance with their values, needs and aspirations. One of the outcomes of this investigation is that, countries advanced in sustainable tourism has already introduced **a robust 'sustainability' understanding or approach into forest management**, starting from a national strategy that will shape further legal documents; i.e., laws, by-laws and regulations, as well as the plans and practices that would encourage sustainable practices in forest management and forest land allocated for tourism purposes. It is also very important to promote national, regional and local (or, federal, provincial and territorial) interventions that are research-based, and that lead to action and innovation in product development and marketing. The second important result is related to **integrated approach** to sustainable forest management; that is, a holistic and integrated approach that would embrace not only ecological, socio-cultural and economic dimensions of sustainability, but also policy, legal, institutional, and financial aspects of the planning and implementation processes. This approach should also embrace co-operative and integrated control systems. **Collaborative planning** is another important feature. A sustainable forest management requires a collaborative planning approach that develops strong, flexible and dynamic partnerships among

stakeholders (i.e., private sector, NGOs and local communities) and key decision makers at all levels of government, and continuous consultation with them. As well as its collaborative and cooperative roles, the state should also play a leading role in terms of identifying the sustainable forest strategy, plans, process and implementation, and thus safeguarding the public interest. Community involvement, engagement and community empowerment also plays a crucial role regarding the sustainable management of forest lands allocated for tourism. At **the institutional level**, the coordination and cooperation among the state agencies responsible for the forest use and management at national, regional and local level is crucial. Equally, mechanisms at national, regional and local levels also should be developed for this purpose.

CHAPTER 3

SUSTAINABILITY AND TOURISM-ORIENTED ALLOCATION OF FOREST LANDS IN TURKEY

This chapter examines the legal, institutional, stakeholder and policy dimensions of the allocation of forest lands for tourism investments in Turkey in relation to 'sustainability'. More specifically, it seeks to investigate how far the institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal structures in Turkey have accommodated the sustainability approach while allocating and using forest lands for tourism purposes. The chapter therefore comprises four sections, in parallel to the countries examined in Chapter 2. In the first two sections, it examines the public agencies and other stakeholders participating in the decision-making processes of tourism and environment sectors in Turkey. Then, the third section explores the sustainable tourism and environment strategies with a special emphasis on forest lands in Turkey. The fourth section studies the related legal framework in Turkey, and examines how far the laws in force have contained the sustainability measures. In the final section, the findings of the chapter are summarized.

3.1 Institutional organization of tourism and environment sectors

Public institutions playing the leading roles in the decision-making processes of tourism and environment sectors are the **Ministry of Culture and Tourism (MCT)**, and the **Ministry of Environment and Forestry (MEF)**. The MEF is responsible for protecting forests, and implementing the operations about establishing the rights of easement over the State forests (TC, ÇOB). Within the MEF, the **General Directorate of Forests (GDF)** is the responsible unit for state forests (TC, ÇOB). The MCT is responsible for developing tourism strategies, programs and plans by using and promoting natural, cultural, historical resources and values, and for

directing all investment, communication and development potentials in culture and tourism sectors in order to make tourism work effective for national economy (TC, KTB). The **General Directorate of Investments and Establishments (GDIE)**, under the authority of the Ministry**,** is the responsible unit for allocating public lands for tourism investments (TC, KTB). Also, as physical planning emerges as an application tool of the national tourism strategies, the MCT is responsible for the approvals, revisions and amendments of 1/25000 Sub-region Development Plans, 1/5000 Master Plans, and 1/1000 Implementation Plans within the borders of 'Culture and Tourism Conservation and Development Regions', and 'Tourism Centers' (TC, KTB). The decisions for approvals, revisions and amendments of these plans are made by the **Plan Analysis and Evaluation Council (PAEC)** of the MCT (TC, KTB). Besides, under the authority of the MCT, there is another council, the **Land Allocation Council (LAC)**, that make the decisions for pre-approval and final allocation of public lands, transferring, freezing, annulling or waking these allocations, granting additional periods and additional lands, evaluating capacity revisions, transferring company lots, changing law names etc. (TC, KTB). The LAC decisions become valid upon the approval of the Minister (TC, KTB).

Beside the MEF and the MCT, supreme courts, the State Planning Organization, and the Ministry of Finance are the organizations guiding or revising the decisions in tourism and environment sectors. There are two supreme courts revising the decisions of executive and legislative powers in tourism and environment sectors. The first one is the **Constitutional Court (CC)** whose main mission is to supervise the compatibility of some procedures by legislative power to Constitution (TC, AM). The second one is the **Presidency of Council of State (PCS)** that comprises a number of chambers. Of these chambers, the major responsibility of the **Sixth Chamber of the PCS** is to deal with the legal problems and disagreements concerning tourism and environment (TC, DB). The **State Planning Organization (SPO)**, under the authority of the Prime Ministry, offers counselling services on economic, social, environmental and other issues to guide national development by producing five-year development plans, reports on specific issues (as called 'Special Expertise Commission Reports') to be used for the preparation of seventh, eighth and

ninth five-year development plans whereby environment, forestry and tourism sectors are analyzed in detail (TCB, DPT). Additionally, the SPO also produces other policy documents concerning physical and social planning, such as National Environment Action Plan (NEAP) in 1997, Forests and Turkish Forestry in 2001 and Action Plans in 2003 and 2008 (TCB, DPT). All these documents are investigated under the Section 3.3.

As well as SPO, the **General Directorate of National Estate (GDNE)** under the authority of the **Ministry of Finance (MF),** is responsible for controling the public and real estates belonging to the State, identifying the administrative principles for them, making decisions about how they will be used and performing other legal and administrative processes about them (TC, MB).

Additionally, there are international agencies, seeking to guide the ideas and principles in tourism and environment sectors and being slightly effective in shaping policies and changing legal, institutional and policy structure in Turkey. One of them is the UN, of which Turkey is a founding member. **The UN** is an international organization founded in 1945 after the Second World War by 51 countries committed to maintaining international peace and security, developing friendly relations among nations and promoting social progress, better living standards and human rights (UN). Due to its unique international character, and the powers vested in its founding Charter, the Organization can take action on a wide range of issues, and provide a forum for its 192 Member States to express their views, through the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council and other bodies and committees (UN).

The second is **The World Bank (WB),** a vital source of financial and technical assistance to developing countries around the world (WB). They provide low-interest loans, interest-free credits and grants to developing countries for a wide array of purposes that include investments in education, health, public administration, infrastructure, financial and private sector development, agriculture, and environmental and natural resource management (WB).

There are several public institutions regarding tourism-oriented allocation of forest lands in Turkey. SPO determines the policies for every sector. The objectives for environment and forest sectors follow sustainable development approaches supported by international agencies. However, the objectives for tourism sector contradict with them. This is a dilemma between conservation and encouragement also observed in lower levels of the Government.

The roles and influence of the institutions in shaping the environmental and tourism policy in general, and specifically the policies related to forests are examined in the section 3.3. The following section examines the roles of private sector, NGOs and local communities in tourism and environment sectors.

3.2 Other actors / stakeholders active in tourism and environment sectors

3.2.1 Private sector

The promotion and development of mass tourism in Turkey started in the 1980s as a national strategy with the conservative governments, and gained a legal status by the Tourism Encouragement Law (Gündüz, 2007b). Especially, large tourism investments, pioneered by Southern Antalya Project in Kemer, and mainly financed by the loans from the WB, started to mushroom along the coastal areas; and have expanded throughout the Mediterranean and Aegean coasts of the country (Gündüz, 2007b). Recently, in Turkey, tourism sector has become the second largest revenue item after the revenue from the exportation (Gündüz, 2007b). **Figures 14 and 15** indicate the increases in number of foreign visitors and tourism receipts between 1980 and 2008.

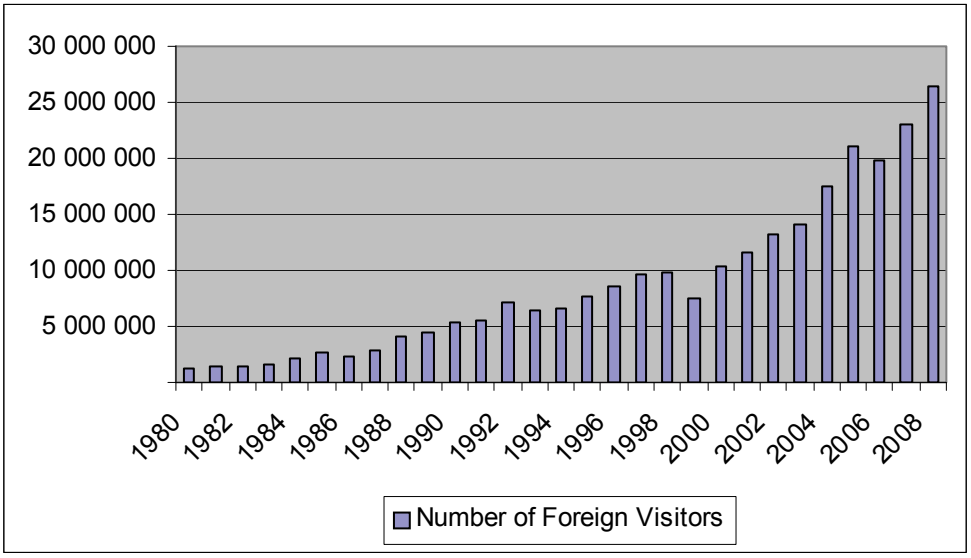


Figure 14 Number of Foreign Visitors to Turkey between 1980 and 2008
Source: TC, KTB

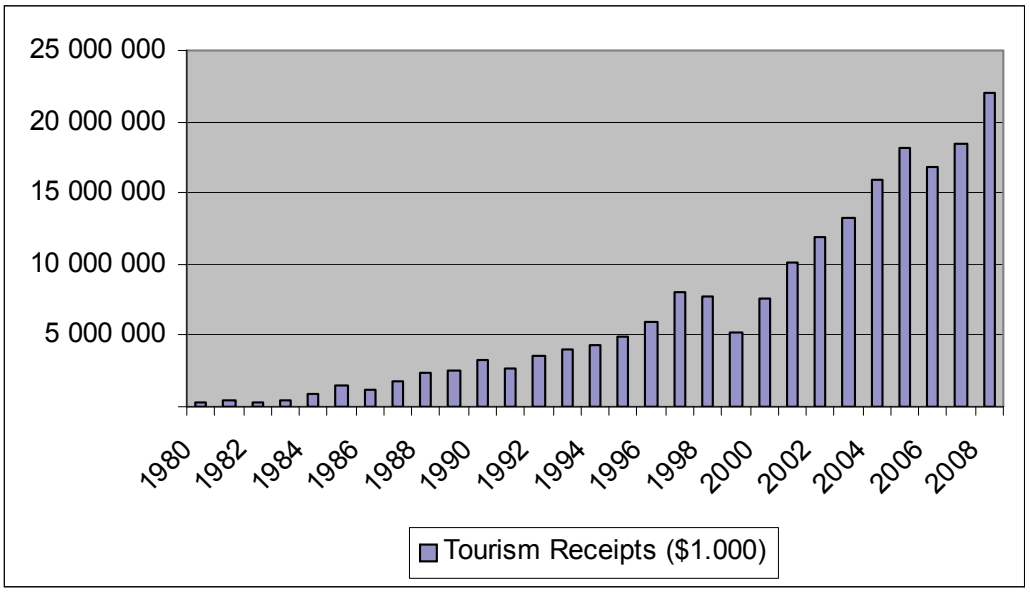


Figure 15 Tourism Receipts of Turkey between 1980 and 2008
Source: TC, KTB

On the other hand, **Figures 16 and 17** indicate the rates of tourism receipts in Gross National Product and export earnings between 1980 and 2008.

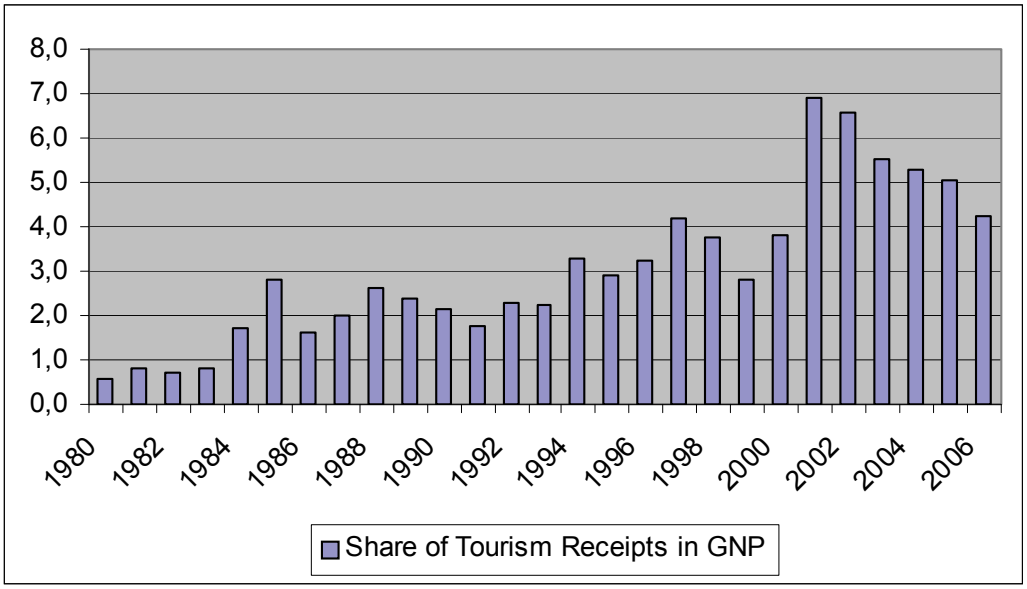


Figure 16 Share of Tourism Receipts in Gross National Product (GNP) between 1980 and 2006
Source: TC, KTB

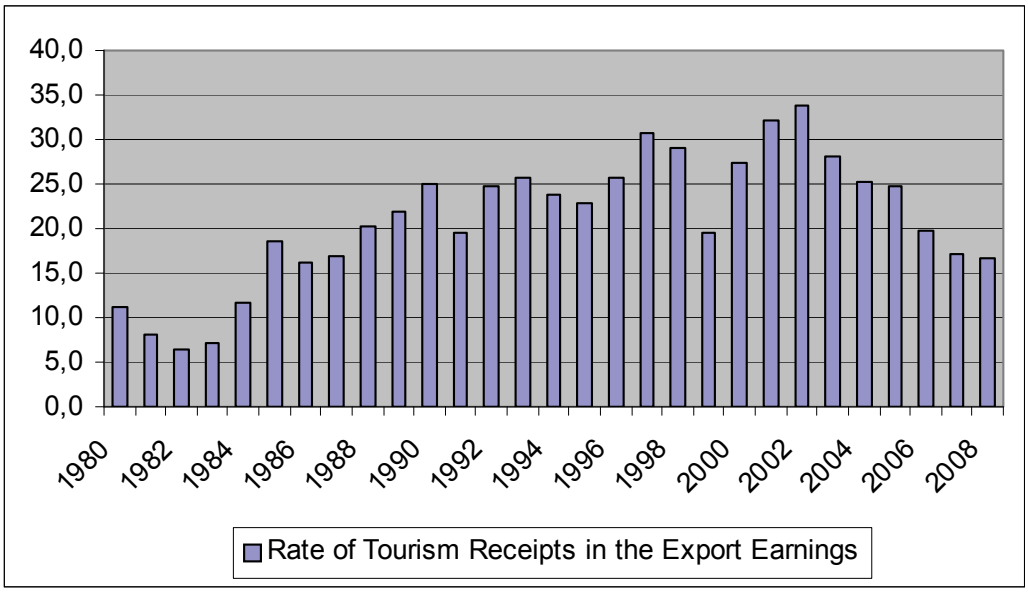


Figure 17 Rate of Tourism Receipts in the Export Earnings between 1980 and 2008
Source: TC, KTB

Private sector has become a very powerful actor in tourism developments as an outcome of the governments' policies since the onset of the 1980s (Gündüz, 2007b). According to **Figure 18**, number of establishments with a Tourism Operation Licence increased about 10 times, while number of beds increased about 20 times between 1970 and 2007. Consequently, not only large-scale national investors (such as development companies), but also international investors have become more and more dominant over the tourism developments in Turkey, while the public interest and wider benefits to localities have been undermined and environment has been continuously damaged (Gündüz, 2007b). Today, the majority of tourism revenues of Turkey (80%) is owned by the large international capital, while the employment in tourism sector is about 12 % (Gündüz, 2007b). According to a research conducted recently by Kuvan and Akan (2005), the private sector has not exhibited a responsible attitude in taking effective measures to protect the environment. In this sense, it is possible to argue that, since the beginning of the 1980s, neither sustainable tourism planning, nor sustainable forest management has been the prime concern of the governments in force in Turkey.

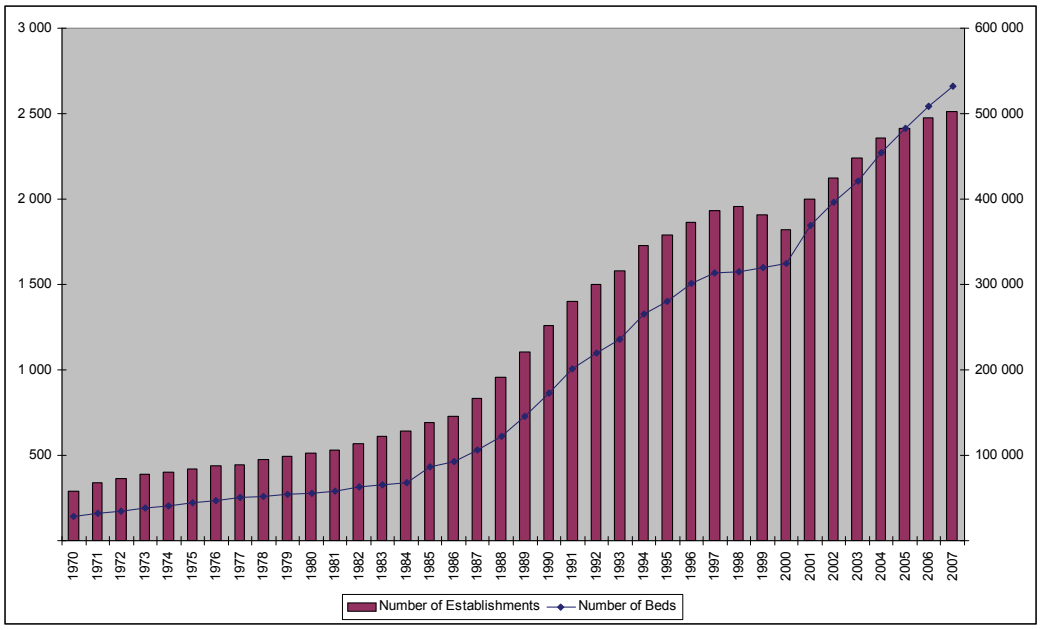


Figure 18 Number of Establishments with a Tourism Operation Licence and Number of Beds between 1970 and 2007
Source: TC, KTB

3.2.2 Non-governmental organizations (NGOs)

The NGOs vary in terms of numbers and interests in Turkey. It is possible to find a number of NGOs working for the conservation of forest lands and their use according to the sustainability measures. Between professional and occupational bodies, Antalya Bar Association (AB) played an important role in objecting tourism developments in forests. AB applied to Sixth Chamber of PCS, opposing to MCT, with the demands of annulment of Articles 7 and 11/d of the Regulations on Allocation of Public Lands to Tourism Investments and suspension of execution (Coşkun, 2008a). Their trial has been based upon the claim of the requirement for determining which situations are included by the "public interest" concept indicated in CC Decree in 2002 annulling the Article 17/3 of the Forestry Law (Coşkun, 2008a). Because forest areas are allocated to tourism investments contrary to the principles defined in CC Decree of Annulment in 2002 and Article 169 of the Constitution, without even subjecting to the rules in the Forestry Law and drawing any frame (Coşkun, 2008a). Other occupational bodies, such as the Chambers of City Planners, Architects, and Environment Engineers supported the approach of AB with their announcements on the subject.

Also, there are some foundations and associations objecting the allocation of forest lands to tourism investments by press statements and projects in Turkey. The Foundation for the Promotion and Protection of the Environment and Cultural Heritage (ÇEKÜL), Solidarity Association of Environmental and Cultural Organizations (ÇEKÜD), Regional Environmental Center (REC) Türkiye, World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) Türkiye, Society for the Protection of Nature (SPN / DHKD), The Turkish Foundation for Combating Soil Erosion, for Reforestation and the Protection of Natural Habitats (The TEMA Foundation) and Turkish Association for the Conservation of Nature (TACN / TTKDer) could be counted between them. Works done by some of these NGOs are referred in Chapter 4 of the thesis. Apart from this, there are NGOs defending the interest of tourism investors, such as Touristic Hotels and Investors Association (TUROB), Turkish Tourism Investors Association (TYD), and Turkish Golf Federation (TGF).

The primary target of sectoral NGOs is maximizing the benefit of tourism sector. However, the primary target of NGOs with environmental concern is not protecting the forests. Beside, some of them are voluntary organizations. As a result of this, sectoral NGOs reach their goals sooner and easier.

3.2.3 Community involvement and public interest

There is a consensus in the literature that the support of the local communities is essential for a successful sustainable tourism development (Kuvan and Akan, 2005). In Turkey, there are some legal provisions allowing local communities to participate in decision-making processes of tourism developments. For example, according to Article 15 of Regulations on Making and Approving Development Plans within Culture and Tourism Conservation and Development Regions and Tourism Centers, plans approved by the MCT are announced to the local community by local governorship or municipality, and waited for a month to hear objections from local community or other interested parties (TC, KTB). Then, if there are any objections to the plans, they are considered by the MCT whether they are relevant in terms of public interest (TC, KTB). If so, the plans are subject to change. On the other hand, within the scope of EIA Regulation, *in situ* public participation meetings are held by the investor in order to inform the community about the investment and receive opinions and suggestions of them (TC, ÇOB). Before the process of evaluation, some studies such as questionnaires and seminars could be performed by the investor (TC, ÇOB).

Despite all these legal regulations, Kuvan and Akan (2005) argue that local communities are not sufficiently involved and engaged in tourism development processes in Turkey, although they are significantly aware of both the benefits and problems caused by tourism developments. A research undertaken in Belek, Antalya, revealed that local community were aware of the economic benefits, socio-cultural changes and a number of negative effects on environment, including forests that were caused by mass tourism. The same research also showed that local community shared

a strong consensus that the private sector has not exhibit a responsible attitude in taking effective measures to protect the environment; and if plans and policies related to tourism planning and forest conservation are made as joint efforts between related public organizations and private sector representatives, a balance can be attained between nature conservation and tourism (Kuvan and Akan, 2005). This research, in turn, suggests that the local communities have the capacity to produce solutions for their problems, and therefore provide us with a great opportunity for capacity building in such areas.

Despite these local capacities, the effectiveness of localities on the decision-making processes of tourism developments is getting smaller and smaller, while the private sector's influence increases. Geray (2007) asserts that a decision about land allocation narrows the public resources, as well as the other drawbacks. In this way, the opportunities of benefiting from nature and sea by communities of today and next generations are transferred to private sector (Geray, 2007). This indicates that the number of people benefiting from these resources decreases (Geray, 2007). Consequently, a number of problems, such as unemployment, uncontrolled urban development damaging environments, including forest and agricultural lands, increasing immigrants creating imbalances in local labour market arise in the areas and their close proximities where mass tourism has been pumped. The areas which turn into special conservation areas might be also negatively affected and a number of local problems might appear, as in the case of Kızıldağ National Park. After the announcement of the area as a national park, a research was undertaken on the communities living in eleven villages in this park area. The research shows that local communities suffer from a number of problems, such as unemployment, narrowing of the lands by heritage, loss of income in agriculture and stockbreeding, some restraints after the announcement of national park (Korkmaz, 2001). For this reason, migration from the villages are at high level (Korkmaz, 2001).

According to many scholars such as Kaya and Smardon (2000), Korkmaz (2001), Kuvan and Akan (2005), and Geray (2007), tourism could only be beneficial if effective sustainability measures are taken. For Kuvan and Akan (2005),

development of tourism in an area may be beneficial for the environment because of an increased awareness about the value of the environmental resources in establishing demand into the area, depending on the extent to which better protection measures are taken and the degree to which an approach of eco-tourism based development is adopted. As the human dimensions of the protection of natural resources result in important challenges in land use planning and management with global changes in population size and distribution, and land use, special attention should be given to the participation and support of local people in the land use planning and tourism development processes (Korkmaz, 2001; Kuvan, 2005; Kuvan and Akan, 2005). Developing employment opportunities for locals are among the recommendations for such areas. Kuvan (2005), for example, recommends that in terms of improving residents' quality of life and stopping the physical development of tourism, small hotel enterprises (pensions) operated in the existing houses of residents should be supported. On the other hand, forest recreation areas including daily sea and land-based activities should be established for the utilization of the residents, and the forest enterprise should make residents a priority in regard to the running of these areas (Kuvan, 2005). Similarly, Korkmaz (2001) points out the possibility to develop nature tourism activities (such as canoeing, sailboarding, and paragliding), and led local communities to run these activities personally or as an organization, to select the staff to be employed in tourism activities from local community. He also (2001) suggests the development of natural cultivation techniques so that organic products can be produced, the promotion of local authentic activities, such as carpet and rug weaving. On the other hand, Kaya and Smardon (2000) argue that social equity should be a major issue in coastal planning and management. Especially, this is mainly important in case of beach access, since some coastal developments have tended to become as prestigious enclave for groups of people (Kaya and Smardon, 2000). In the coastlines, wire-mesh barriers are still encountered which is a direct evidence of the social inequality experienced by the most of the population (Kaya and Smardon, 2000).

Between the other actors, private sector holds the first place. There are Turkish, foreign and multinational companies in tourism sector. They are highly influential on

public institutions. On the other hand, non-governmental organizations try to accomplish the conservation duty of forest lands against tourism investors. Local communities exhibit similar characteristics to public institutions. There are citizens both approving and disapproving tourism investments in forest lands. For this reason, public interest ensuring the benefit of the majority of the community should be preferred.

All these suggestions therefore indicate the necessity to prepare a master plan and rural development plan based on a robust understanding of sustainability. It is obvious that the present planning tools and mechanisms to include local communities in the planning process are insufficient. There should be other tools and mechanisms ensuring the continuous involvement and engagement of local communities into the planning and implementation process of tourism developments, activities and organizations in Turkey.

3.3 Sustainable tourism and environment strategy in general and sustainable forest strategy in particular

In this section, first, a number of strategy and policy documents prepared by national agencies are examined in order to understand how far the policy and strategies related to tourism and environment, and specifically forest management in Turkey have accommodated the sustainability measures while allocating and using forest lands for tourism purposes. In Turkey, although incremental, there are a number of policy documents prepared to provide a macro-level strategy on tourism and environment at national, regional and local level. Five-year development plans (FYDPs), reports on environment and tourism specifically prepared by the commissions of SPO, and action plans are examined in the first part of this section (3.3.1). In the second part of this section, the policy recommendations of the international agencies will be studied to see what sustainability measures they suggested for the sustainable forest management in Turkey.

3.3.1 National strategy documents

Five-Year Development Plans (FYDP)

Growth of tourism, as a new sector in the Turkish economy, coincides with the settlement of the five-year fold economic development plans introduced in the mid-1960s (Kaya and Smardon, 2000). It was soon realized that the tourism sector could be very effective for solving the foreign currency shortage within the economy, as well as for increasing national income (Kaya and Smardon, 2000). This was an alternative way for the economic development of the country and the main target of planning has been formulated to increase bed capacities of tourist regions (Kaya and Smardon, 2000). After 1963, Turkey entered a period in which five-year economic development plans (FYDP) were implemented (Kuvan, 2005). The main principles, policies and expectations are evaluated and explained for each sector at the national level in these plans (Kuvan, 2005). In addition to FYDPs, the main policy objectives for each sector are also formulated by legal arrangements (Kuvan, 2005). Of all the FYDPs, the 4th Plan (1979–1983) implicated the use of forests in tourism for the first time (Kuvan, 2005). The subsequent FYDPs have generally emphasized a set of objectives such as timber production, nature conservation and recreation-tourism within the framework of sustainability and multiple use principles (Kuvan, 2005).

The 9th FYDP (the latest one, covering the period of 2007-2013) describes the current situation of tourism sector as summarised below:

> In terms of the value-added, employment and foreign exchange revenues it has created, tourism has been one of the sectors that has displayed significant progress within the past 20 years. While the share of Turkish tourism in the international tourism revenues was 1.6 per cent in 2000, it reached 2.9 per cent in 2005. During the same period, while the number of foreign tourists rose from 10.4 million to 21.1 million persons, tourism revenues increased from 7.6 billion dollars to 18.2 billion dollars. With this increase in the number of tourists and foreign exchange revenues, Turkey is 12th on the rank of countries that receive the highest number of tourists in the world and 8th in revenues. The bed capacity certified by the Ministry of Tourism and Culture, which was 352 thousands in 2000, increased to 450 thousands in 2005, whereas the municipality certified bed capacity of 350

thousands rose to 400 thousands. On the other hand, there are 260 thousand beds under investment. 4,825 travel agencies perform activities in the sector. Despite the rapid increase in bed capacity and important developments achieved in the recent years in Turkey, it is apparent that there is a need of structural reform in the advertisement and marketing areas. The fact that transition to professional certification system could not have been realized yet, adversely affects the service quality. (TCB, DPT, 2007a) (**Figures 19 and 20**)

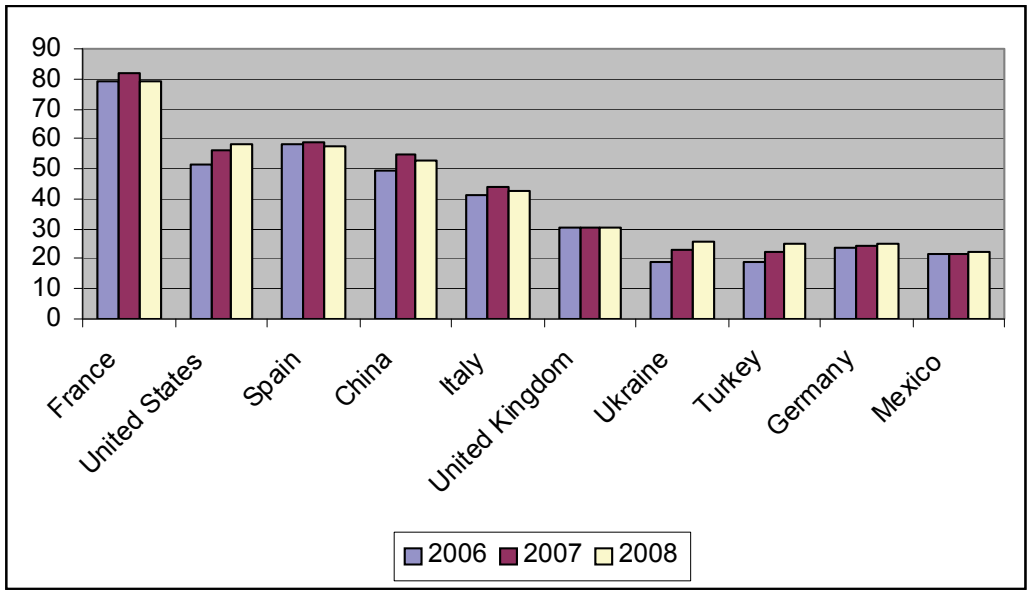


Figure 19 International Tourist Arrivals (million people)
Source: Derived from www.unwto.org

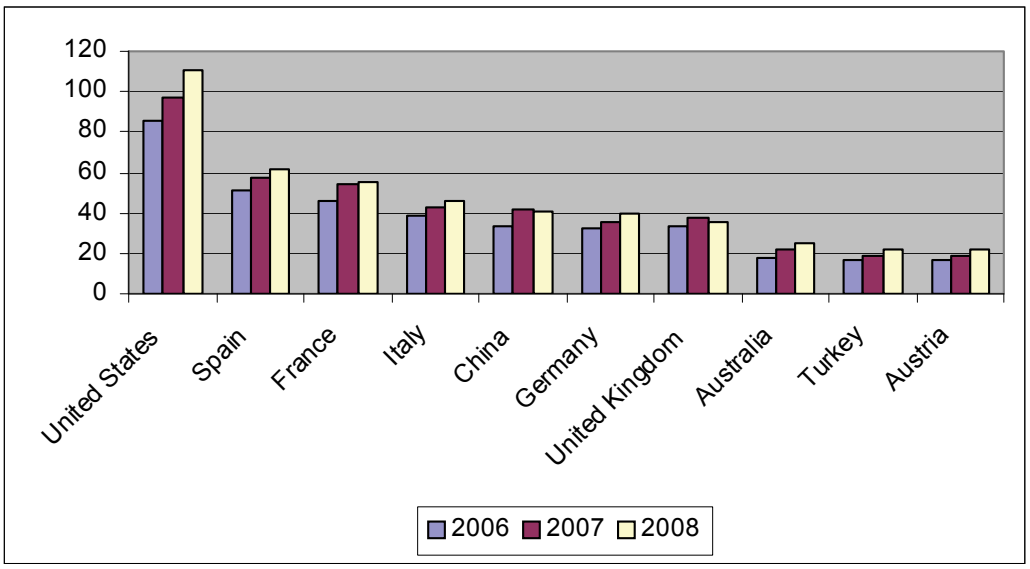


Figure 20 International Tourism Receipts (billion $)
Source: Derived from www.unwto.org

As one can note, the 9th FYDP does not consider the rapid urbanisation and tourism development as the threats towards natural environment and specificaly forests. Contrary, tourism development is strongly encouraged by the new advertisement and marketing strategies, and the foundation of professional certificate system. Sustainable development in tourism and environment sectors therefore does not appear to be the prime concern of the Plan. As for the main objectives related to tourism, the 9th FYDP determines the sector as noted below:

- Tourism sector will be directed towards reducing the imbalances of welfare and development within the country;
- Economic and social development will be realized by developing tourism in regions, which have tourism potential, but have not been sufficiently addressed before;
- Greatest care will be taken in ensuring that all investments in the sector are realized with an approach of protecting, preserving and developing the natural, historical and social environment;
- Along with creating new capacity in the sector, development of the quality of the existing services will be emphasized and the duties of new actors regarding the areas of advertising, marketing, infrastructure, tourism education and environment and the role of the state within the tourism sector will be redefined;
- With the aim of improving the seasonal and geographical distribution of tourism and creating new potential areas by taking into account the changing consumer preferences in foreign markets, destination point management will be emphasized and directive activities towards golf, winter, mountain, thermal, yacht, and congress tourism and eco-tourism will be continued;
- Health services tourism will be supported considering Turkey's competitive advantage in terms of prices, service quality and geo-thermal resources;
- Marketing, air transport and total quality improvement will be priorities in tourism incentives until the demand is met at profitable prices and occupancy rates with the existing capacities;

- In regions where tourism activities are more concentrated, participation of local administrations and local users in decisions related to tourism and in the financing of the physical infrastructure, which is to be realized by the state, will be ensured;
- The Tourism Sector Master Plan will be prepared in order to achieve a long-term and sound development of the tourism sector;
- A certification system, which will enable standardization in tourism education and quality, improvement in productivity and job quality and identification of skill levels required for employment, will be introduced. (TCB, DPT, 2007a)

The 9th FYDP, despite the goals of protecting natural, historic and social environments, including local governments and communities into the decision-making processes, and making long-term tourism plans, does not appear to be based on a robust 'sustainability' understanding which will integrate economic, environmental and socio-cultural dimensions of development. The objectives do not contain any suggestions about the revision and improvement of tourism and environment-related legislation (in specific, forest legislations) to adapt the sustainability measures, the introduction of integrated approach, collaborative planning, community engagement and empowerment, the necessary mechanisms and arrangements at the institutional structure to help the coordination and cooperation among the state agencies responsible for the forest use and management at national, regional and local level.

Special Expertise Commission Reports on Environment and Tourism

Parallel to 7th, 8th and 9th FYDPs, SPO also published Special Expertise Commission Reports, including the reports for environment, forestry and tourism sectors. First, these reports analyze the existing situation, second examine the effects of participation process in European Union (EU), third estimate expected developments in the sector during the five-year period, and last determine a strategy for the sector (TCB, DPT).

The Environment Report that shows the development of tourism facilities and vacation houses as the main environment pollutants, and sees the Tourism Encouragement Law as a landmark in terms of the development of mass tourism in Turkey, not only by introducing special incentives for supporting the private enterprises of mass tourism, but also by putting untouched coasts, productive agricultural areas, historical and natural values into service of tourism (TCB, DPT, 2007b). The report also notes that the Article 8 of the Tourism Encouragement Law and the related Regulations[13] put development pressure on forest lands; and the provisions included in the same law about transferring the ownership of forest lands for constructing facilities contradict with the Article 169 of the Constitution (TCB, DPT, 2007c). Similarly, the report sees the long-term allocation demands of forest areas for non-forestry utilizations under the name of public interest as one of the major threats towards the sustainability of forests; and strongly recommends that bays and areas under protection should never be open to tourism developments (TCB, DPT, 2007c). When looking at the report regarding the sustainability measures, it is possible to see that the report only includes the critics of the present practice threatening the sustainability of environment, as well as the forest, but it fails to put forward proposals to develop a new legal, institutional and policy structure with sustainability measures.

The Tourism Report, mainly based on the idea of promoting private tourism developments, does not appear to put the sustainable tourism planning as a priority area. The report makes a number of policy suggestions, such as encouraging the private investors or companies which have already made tourism developments on the public lands allocated in priority areas to make another investment again on the public lands allocated in developed regions; the mechanism of allocating public lands to private investors relying on transparent and objective criteria, and stipulating the completion of the investments in allocated public lands in three years; and Land Development and Land Allocation Models, providing the provision of many tourism activities by foreign chains and brands, increasing the creativity of private sector, and

[13] Regulations on Allocation of Public Estates to Tourism Investments

thus reducing the burden of public sector (TCB, DPT, 2007d). All these policy suggestions are not only far from the sustainable tourism planning, but also considerably threathens the public and national interests.

Forests and Turkish Forestry

In 2001, the SPO, aiming to develop a long-term strategy for Turkish forests, published a document entitled "Forests and Turkish Forestry" (TCB, DPT). Showing the environmental, social and economic merits of forests, the document suggested their preservation, and their use for eco-tourism (TCB, DPT, 2001). Although it emphasizes the importance of forests regarding sustainable development, it does not include any suggestions for sustainable forest management.

National Environmental Action Plan (NEAP)

As Turkey ratified the decisions in the World Summit held in Rio in 1992, it prepared and published the National Environmental Action Plan (NEAP) that is mainly based on general policies and actions issued in Agenda 21 (TCB, DPT). The NEAP marks the prominent environmental problems caused by tourism, such as:

- Tourism sector produces positive economic and socio-cultural results, while causing negative effects on environment;
- Planning, infrastructure and business systems and legal, administrative and political structures could not keep up with the rapid tourism development;
- Coastal construction, beach erosion and deterioration of dune stabilization have created destroying effects on endemic plants, flora and fauna;
- Agriculture and forest lands have been developed for tourism investments;
- The MCT made bad mistakes by ignoring the environmental dimension in the past (TCB, DPT, 1997).

Finally, the plan suggests that, before developing tourism in a region, environmental, socio-cultural and socio-economic researches should be made and control mechanism should be improved (TCB, DPT, 1997). Despite the identification of the prominent problems, similar to the Forests and Turkish Forestry, the NEAP has

failed to produce suggestions for neither sustainable tourism development, nor sustainable forest management.

Action Plans of the Governments

The 58th Government of the Republic of Turkey published an Emergency Action Plan (EAP) in 2003. Replacing the current leasehold system with the freehold system and thus facilitating public land sales to foreign investors and consortiums to develop tourism towns, identifying İstanbul Western Black Sea Region, Didim, Antalya-Alanya Interval and Adana Yumurtalık as pilot regions, the plan constituted a significant threat for not only environment, but also the public and national interests in general (TC, 58th Government, 2003). Fortunately, the Action Plan of the 60th Government of the Republic of Turkey abandoned all the approaches of EAP, and introduced the measures to protect biodiversity and proposed the development of eco-tourism and agro-tourism (TC, 60th Government, 2008). Nevertheless, it constitutes a robust sustainability approach for neither tourism, nor environment sectors.

Turkey Tourism Strategy and Action Plan (TTS)

The Turkey Tourism Strategy (TTS) 2023 and the related Action Plan 2007-2013 were ratified by the decision of Higher Planning Council no 28.02.2007/4, and came into force in 2007 (Official Gazette no 02.03.2007/26450). They are the documents prepared by MCT promoting collaboration of public and private sectors, and strategic planning as planning approaches (TC, KTB, 2007). The TTS and the related Action Plan aim at utilizing natural, cultural, historical and geographical values of the country within the context of conservation-use balance, and increasing the revenue share of Turkey within the world tourism by introducing and developing alternative tourism by proposing thematic corridors, tourism development regions, tourism towns and eco-tourism regions along the development axes (**Figure 21**) (TC, KTB, 2007). It anticipates 63 million tourists, $ 86 billion foreign travel revenue, and $ 1.350 expenditure per tourist in 2023 (TC, KTB, 2007). Regarding the land

allocation, TTS Action Plan claims to give investors more opportunities by relying upon the approaches of strategic planning and tourism towns (TC, KTB, 2007). Nevertheless, it does not provide a robust and holistic approach for sustainable tourism planning.

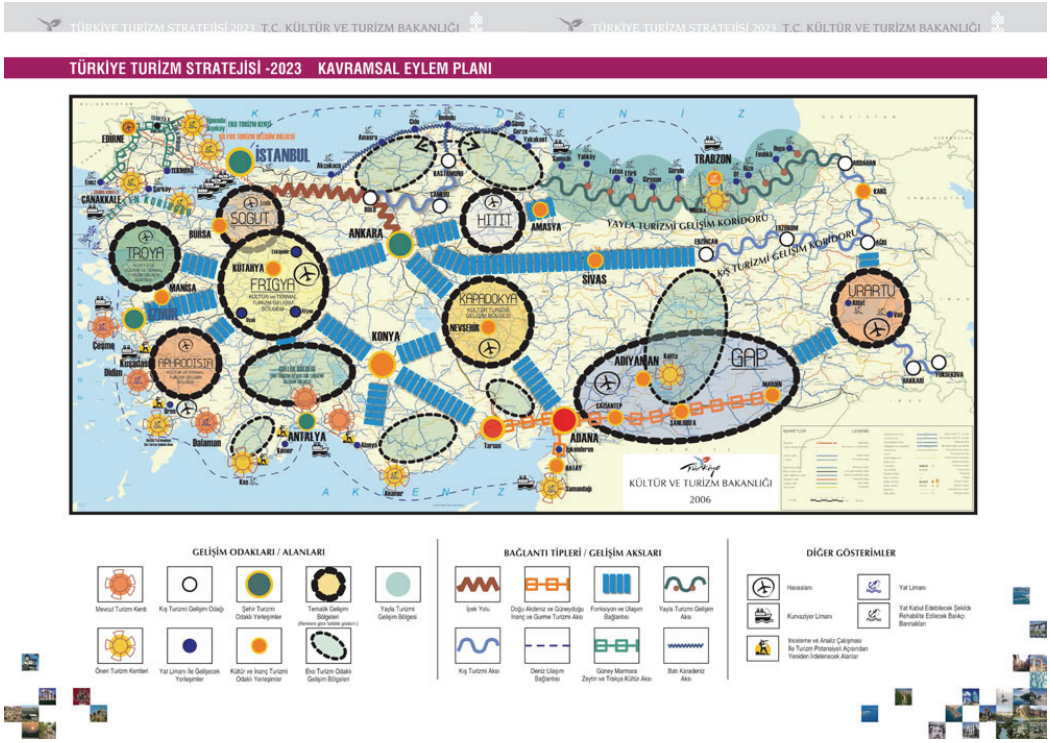


Figure 21 Conceptual Action Plan
Source: TC, KTB, 2007

3.3.2 International documents

Since Turkey is a member of the UN since 1945, it adhered a number of UN Conventions such as, Convention for the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage of 1972 in Paris, Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) of 1973 in Washington, Convention on the Conservation of European Wildlife and Natural Habitats of 1979 in Bern, Framework Convention on Climate Change (FCCC) of 1992 in Rio de Janeiro, Protocol on Biological Diversity of 1992 in Rio de Janeiro, and Forest Principles of 1992 in Rio de Janeiro (UN).

UNDP is the UN's global development network, advocating for change and connecting countries to knowledge, experience and resources to help people build a better life (UNDP). Across the world, UNDP is working in partnership in a number of key areas: Democratic governance; poverty reduction; crisis prevention and recovery; energy and the environment; HIV/AIDS (UNDP). UNDP Turkey works for Democratic Governance and Growth without Poverty (UNDP). For more than 50 years the UNDP in Turkey has worked in close partnership with the Turkish government and numerous national and international institutions, including NGOs, academics and the business community (UNDP). Turkey's vulnerable eco-system has been placed under increasing stress by high population growth, rising incomes and energy consumption (UNDP). An additional stress factor is intense development activity resulting from growing urbanisation and booming tourism (UNDP). According to the projections carried out by the UNFCCC, Turkey that lies within the Mediterranean Basin is situated in regions highly vulnerable to climate change (UNDP). As sustainable development has become a worldwide concern, it has also gradually been reflected in Turkey's policy debates (UNDP). Since 1991, Turkey's five year development plans have included environmental strategies (UNDP).

Similarly, the WB is an influential body that makes recommendations to Turkey for taking actions regarding environment and sustainable development. The WB published a document entitled “Turkey Forestry Sector Review” in 2001 for addressing important emerging issues (WB, 2001). The document explains new demands on forest resources due to recent economic growth and urbanization as follows:

> Over the last decade, Turkey has averaged per capita income growth of about two percent. Rising incomes and accompanying urbanization have led to increases in overall demand for forest products, and to a very significant increase in demand for environmental, recreational and other services of forests. One estimate shows that more than 5 million people now visit Turkish recreational sites per year. Eco-tourism is rapidly growing in several regions of the country including the Mediterranean, Aegean and Black Sea regions. In the Alanya district of Antalya province alone, there are 7 private eco-tourism firms which carry over 20,000 visitors to mountain and forest areas every year. In addition, game and wildlife hunting is

> another popular activity in Turkey. Estimates are that there are over 1 million licensed hunters and 3 million unlicensed hunters in Turkey. In Anatolia alone, there are two hunting tourism firms organizing regular safari tours for foreign hunters. (WB, 2001)

It underlines the problems and threats to forest lands and makes suggestions about the actions to be taken. First, it points out the increasing needs and demands for forest lands that will bring about **demands for better forest fire protection, protection of the visual amenity provided by forests within view of urban areas, and protection of forests which are not actually visited or seen** (WB, 2001). Second, it underlines **inadequacy of legislative provisions for long-term allocation of forest lands to individuals or entities for non-forestry uses in the public interest** (e.g., tourism and mining) (WB, 2001). The report states that "implementation of these provisions is also criticized by many stakeholders, who believe that it serves the interest of influential groups (e.g. owners of large tourism installations) who are allocated valuable lands for long periods (49-99 years) at charges far below market value" (WB, 2001). A further issue is related to "**inadequacies in the other laws** (i.e. Tourism Encouragement Law, Range Law, Environment Law, Hunting Law) **and conflicts and gaps between them** and the forest legislation (that) are among the important shortcomings of the legal framework" (WB, 2001). Also, the report points out "**the lack of adequate sanctions in some laws** (i.e. National Afforestation Mobilization Law, The Law for Supporting Development of Forest Villagers)" as other important deficiencies (WB, 2001). Finally, it strongly draws attention to **the need to revise and improve forest legislation to adapt the commitments of Turkey to international conventions and processes** (WB, 2001).

Turkey Forestry Sector Review also shows the importance and need **of forestry research to respond to the newly emerging issues as follows**:

> Research should play an important role in addressing issues faced by the forestry sector in Turkey. Forestry research is presently being undertaken by the nine regional forestry research directorates and nine forestry faculties. Traditionally, forestry research has concentrated on technical topics, such as silviculture, nursery and reforestation techniques, breeding, etc. However,

> current challenges require **increased emphasis on socio-economic and environmental issues, including biodiversity, forest village development, community forestry and participation, development of agrosilvo-pastoral systems, non-wood products, recreation, amenity, forest valuation, multi-purpose management and utilization of forest resources, trends in demands for wood and non-wood products and services, protected areas, wildlife, eco-tourism, hunting, pasture improvement and management, finance and economics.** These needs are recognized in the recently-prepared Forestry Research Master Plan as well as in the Special Forestry Reports of the Five Year Development Plan. The interest and involvement of researchers in these topics has increased during recent years, but at present it is still inadequate. (WB, 2001)

The report also calls attention to **education needs strengthening on these issues, and the urgent involvement and collaboration** between researchers, implementation units and other stakeholders (including NGOs) (WB, 2001). Additionally, the WB document deals with **the influence of stakeholders on the forestry sector** as follows:

> A large number of stakeholders have an important influence in the forestry sector, these include farmers and grazers, large parastatal wood-consuming industries, urban dwellers, the tourism and hunting sectors, and environmental interest groups. Demands and expectations of the various stakeholder groups are **inadequately rationalized by the current forest sector management systems**, and this occasionally **leads to conflict, inefficiencies and unsustainable practices**. Some stakeholder proposals, such as urban expansion into forest areas, restriction of logging operations or expansion into protected areas, may put their proponents into conflict with forest villagers, while other uses, such as eco-tourism, hunting and forest recreation, could generate income in forest villages. **Major stakeholder groups should be encouraged to participate in transparent priority-setting, reconciling competitive uses of forest resources by different stakeholders and developing forest management plans**. (WB, 2001)

Turkey Forestry Sector Review concludes that protected areas are at risk from a variety of threats including unsustainable use of natural resources by local communities and uncontrolled development for residential, tourism and other purposes (WB, 2001). Turkish forests, both inside protected areas and in production forests, have important global values, and there may be justification for international support for conservation of biodiversity and other forest values in Turkey (WB,

2001). In order to capture those benefits, it will be necessary to develop new models, experience and capability in protected-areas management (WB, 2001).

Conserving forests and encouraging investments in forests are different approaches. Priority should be given to conservation of forests as they are natural resources renewable solely in the long-run. In contrast with the foreign country cases in the previous chapter, mass tourism and giant facilities in forest lands have been supported in Turkey by even official documents. Only day visitor or small-scale accommodation facilities compatible with forests might be allowed if there are superior public interest and obligation at the same time. Although the UN and the WB do not have a direct influence in shaping the national environment and tourism strategy of Turkey, the problems pointed out, and action recommendations by the WB related to the sustainable forest management is important in terms of the Turkish governments to make necessary legal, policy and institutional arrangements and to take actions. The recommendation of the WB are in parallel to the sustainability measures identified by the last part of Chapter 2. The following sections will examine the recent legislations on tourism and forestry regarding sustainability approach.

3.4 Laws and regulations

3.4.1 The 1982 Constitution

The land legislation in Turkey is regulated by constitutions and laws (Kumbur and Koçak, 1998). The Article 35 of the 1982 Constitution stresses that everybody has the rights of possession and inheritance, these rights could be limited by law only in favor of public interest and cannot be used against the public interest (Kumbur and Koçak, 1998). On the other hand, the Article 169 is about the conservation of forests (Kumbur and Koçak, 1998). Tourism-oriented allocation of the Treasury lands and the State forests finds its roots on the 1982 Constitution and applied by two laws[14] (Çağlar, 2007). For instance, easement right could be established over the State

[14] Forestry Law No 6831 and Tourism Encouragment Law No 2634

forests if there is any public interest according to the Article 169 of the Constitution (Çağlar, 2007). The Article 56 of the 1982 Constitution regulated the subject of environment in three dimensions: Duty of the Government, duty of the citizens, and right of everyone (Atabay, 2007). This arrangement binds legislative, executive, juridical powers and citizens (Atabay, 2007). The Government accomplishes its duty for conserving the right of environment by making planning decisions compatible with the planning hierarchy for restoring a healthy structure for physical environment and providing spatial integrity in the country and the region (Atabay, 2007). The allocation decision should only be made through the result of an analysis described in the Article 5 (main goals and missions of the Government) of the Constitution (Geray, 2007). Moreover, realization of the Articles 56 (health services and environmental conservation) and 63 (conservation of historical, cultural and natural assets) of the Constitution is a public function and requires such an analysis (Geray, 2007). Neither the MEF nor the MCT has resolved the problems of planning and land allocation in this way (Geray, 2007).

As can be seen above, the 1982 Constitution has given the responsibility to protect and conserve the forest lands, and to ensure their use in accordance with the public interest to the state agencies. It is also arguable that the sustainable forest management –as it is in the public interest- is also among the responsibilities of state agencies given by the Consitution. Although to make the necessary policy and legislative arrangements while allocating the forest lands for tourism purposes in concurrence with sustainability measures should be the tasks of the government agencies, as it will be seen in the following sections, this has not been accomplished either.

3.4.2 Forestry Law

The allocation of forested areas to non-forestry activities for the first time became an issue in the agenda by the Forestry Law No 3116 that came into force in 1937 (Coşkun, 2008a). In 1956, the Forestry Law No 6831 was enacted to determine a new forest policy, including statements on recreational and tourism opportunities,

timber production and environmental services or protection objectives (Kuvan, 2005). Therefore, the Law (especially the Article 17) has become a legal arrangement that has regulated the use of the State forests for non-forestry purposes, especially tourism investments (Çağlar, 2007; Çoşkun, 2008b). According to the Article 17, apart from tourism facilities, the criteria related to public health, security and interest are assessed for the development of any non-forestry activity on forest lands (Coşkun, 2008a). In 1983, an arrangement[15] amended the Article 17 and the construction of all sorts of buildings and facilities in favor of the public interest and buildings and facilities to be used by individuals processing forest products is allowed on the State forests outside tourism areas and centers (Coşkun, 2008a). Another arrangement[16] was made in 1987 to allow all sorts of buildings and facilities in favor of the public interest on the State forests outside tourism areas and centers (Coşkun, 2008a). In 2004, the Article 17 was re-arranged by the amendment[17], following the annulment of the Article 17/3 of Forestry Law by CC in 2002 (Coşkun, 2008a). With this amendment, forests have become the lands that cannot be allocated to tourism investments in accordance with the Forestry Law (Coşkun, 2008a).

Although the amendment of 2004 stopped the over-exploitation of the State forests, a total land of 2.000 ha. has been allocated for about 200 facilities on the State forest lands until the end of 2002, based on the Article 17 (Çağlar, 2007). 123 of these allocations are situated in Antalya (Çağlar, 2007). A State forest land of 36,2 ha. in Antalya, Serik, İleribaşı, Damyeri has even been allocated to Chamber of Forest Engineers and Turkish Foresters Association for establishing "Tourism Research Education and Resort Facilities", however these occupational agencies transferred this land by build-operate-transfer method to a private company for building a multi star touristic facility (Çağlar, 2007). The deterministic element for narrowing forest boundaries is the Forestry Law No 6831 (Atik et al., 2006). Excessive demand for tourism-oriented land uses has increased real estate costs after the 1970s, lands transferred to private property have initially developed to agricultural lands and subsequently to tourist accommodation areas (Atik et al., 2006).

[15] Law No 2896
[16] Law No 3373
[17] Law No 5192

There are no measures in Forestry Law to ensure sustainable forest management. Modifications including the required measures should be made. There is also a significant legal gap regarding the subject of this thesis. The responsibility of MEF is limited with transferring the disposition rights of State forests to be allocated for tourism to MCT. Whereas, the reality that these lands are still forested areas should not be forgotten. In other words, MEF should keep the duties of conservation and control over these forests. Forestry Law lacks such provisions and the transfer process of State forests' disposition rights is realized according to a single protocol signed between two Ministries in October 9, 1997.

3.4.3 Tourism Encouragement Law No 2634

The Tourism Encouragement Law No. 2634, enacted in 1982, is the first and the most important law in Turkey that has formed the tourism policy and tourism development implications based on mass tourism (Kuvan, 2005). This law accelerated mass tourism development by providing a wide range of fiscal and monetary incentives to tourism investors, and induced many private entrepreneurs to undertake large amounts of fixed investment including building hotels, holiday villages, yacht ports, entertainment and retail centers (Kaya and Smardon, 2000; Atik et al., 2006; Kuvan, 2005; Duru, 2007). The main incentives provided by this law are credits for low interest loans; allocation facilities including publicly-owned lands, mainly forests, leased for 49 and 99 years; tax exemptions; discount in electricity and water bills; and priorities for communication installation (Kuvan, 2005). The Act has enabled the Council of Ministers to declare 'tourism regions', 'tourism areas', and 'tourism centers', following the suggestions of the Ministry of Tourism (Kaya and Smardon, 2000; Atabay, 2007).

The Tourism Encouragement Law, as the outcomes of comprehensive planning approach, introduced the notions of 'tourism area', 'tourism region' and 'tourism center' to tourism planning in Turkey (Günay, 2000). However, planning principles have been undermined in the course of developing tourism areas / regions / centers;

and these notions have been used as the tools of incremental planning approach in Turkey (Günay, 2000). Ministry of Tourism put more emphasis on the notion of tourism center, while excluding the notions of tourism area and region (Günay, 2000). In fact, the notions of tourism area, region and center represent a hierarchy among tourism developments; and none is independent from each other. On the contrary, current tourism legislation of Turkey allows the development of tourism centers outside culture and tourism conservation and development regions. Günay (2000) indicates that such incremental planning approach has brought about an understanding of tourism planning as a problem of responsibility or duty that should be performed by the government organizations. Consequently, providing tourism plans for tourism areas, regions or centers based on a comprehensive planning approach and respecting on the main principles of the Constitution, has been undermined in Turkey since the early 1980s.

According to the Article 8 of the Tourism Encouragement Law, development plans for tourism areas and centers were to be prepared and approved by the MCT (Atik et al., 2006). As dictated by the Tourism Encouragement Law No. 2634, in tourism areas and centers, the Ministry of Tourism's demand for the allocation of forest land to establish tourist facilities is sufficient and the Ministry of Forestry does not have a right to reject this demand (Kuvan, 2005; Atik et al., 2006; Coşkun, 2008a). In fact, this situation is the foremost problem regarding forest protection in the allocation process, because assessing and allocating forest land for tourism is fulfilled by considering only the arguments, criteria and views from the perspective of the tourism sector, not forestry insight and nature protection priorities (Kuvan, 2005). Moreover, tourism and forestry legislations have not identified in detail how 'natural and cultural resources' would be protected during the construction and operation of tourist facilities, and which environmental rules and/or standards for tourism enterprises would be needed to protect these resources against the possible negative effects of tourism development (Kuvan, 2005).

The Tourism Encouragement Law led to allocate a total area of thousands hectares in the status of the 'State forests' to tourism investments especially along the

Mediterranean and Aegean coasts of Turkey (Atik et al., 2006). For instance, 88 percent of the public lands allocated in Beldibi and 53 percent in Çamyuva consist of forests (Atik et al., 2006). The Law caused the rapid mushrooming of uncontrolled large-scale tourism developments on the coast areas, inevitably resulting in the loss of natural assets and values, and long-term negative effects for environment, including forests (Kaya and Smardon, 2000; Atabay, 2007; Çağlar, 2007; Duru, 2007). Therefore, it is possible to note that the Act contains the understanding of neither sustainable tourism development, nor sustainable forest management.

3.4.4 Law No 4916

Another law, which supported mass tourism, is the Law No 4916 enacted in July 19, 2003 (TC, KTB). The Law came into force to safeguard tourism investors and operators which took illegal actions or processes or those acting contrary to the contract before July 19, 2003 (TC, KTB). It led them to bypass the legal sanctions and to keep their allocations valid, in case they meet the conditions defined by the related Ministries (MF, MCT, and MEF). However, one should note that the spirit of Temporary Article 2 of Law No 4916 contradicts with the provisions in Article 169 of the Constitution stating that "No amnesty or clemency could be granted only for forest crimes. Crimes committing for burning, destroying or narrowing forests could not be covered by an amnesty or a clemency."

3.4.5 Law No 4957

The Tourism Encouragement Law was modified by the Law No 4957 enacted in 2003 (Çağlar, 2007). Similar to the Tourism Encouragement Law, the Law No 4957, promoting the development of mass tourism, did not contain any sustainability measures. The Law, which has extended the scope of land allocations, resulted in the declaration of 32 tourism centers and 7 culture and tourism conservation and development regions by the Decrees of Council of Ministers only within a year (exactly, between December 31, 2004 and January 6, 2005) (Çağlar, 2007; Duru, 2007). Most of these areas were the "State forest" and some of them were even the

forests reserved for “protection of gene seeds” and/or “seed supply” as they have superior genetic characteristics (Çağlar, 2007). Also, the Law turned the MCT into the only responsible authority for development and planning in tourism regions, by deactivating local governments and other related agencies. For instance, a gap that emerged related to tourism facilities on the State forests bounded to the legal framework of the Forestry Law, was overarched by the Law No 4957 (Coşkun, 2008a) (**Table 5**). With this law, upon the assent of the MEF, the MCT has been allowed to allocate forest lands for tourism investments on State forests outside culture and tourism conservation and development regions and tourism centers, and on lands established and declared according to the National Parks Law No 2873 and the Decree Law for Establishing Environmental Protection Agency for Special Areas No 383 (Coşkun, 2008a). Thus, with this Law, facilities and lands owned by public institutons have been transferred to the MCT, and “the authorization for urgent expropriation”, coming up only in special cases like war, brings to the agenda in order to offer a whole region to a single investor in case of necessity (Duru, 2007). All the arrangements were in parallel to the expectations of tourism investors (Duru, 2007).

The Law also appeared to coordinate two Ministries by signing a protocol in October 9, 1997; yet it has never put into action (Coşkun, 2008a). As one can easily note, the Law No 4957 did not constitute any concern of sustainable tourism planning or sustainable forest management. The effort of setting up a coordination among the MEF and the MCT can be also seen only rhetoric, rather than a genuine effort to develop a sensitive coordination and collaboration understanding among state agencies in order to guide the tourism development and environment.

Table 5 Legislative Changes in the Allocation of Forest Lands Inside and Outside CTCDRs and TCs from the early-1980s to 2009

Allocation of Forest Lands Inside CTCDRs and TCs	Allocation of Forest Lands Outside CTCDRs and TCs	Legislative Changes
POSSIBLE	POSSIBLE	16.03.1982 Tourism Encouragement Law No 2634 in the OG
		09.11.1982 Constitution of the RT
		31.03.1983 Regulations on Allocation of Public Lands to Tourism Investments in the OG
		03.10.2001 Annulment of Item 2 of Temporary Article 15 of the Constitution
	IMPOSSIBLE	17.12.2002 CC Decree of Annulment on 6831/17. Date of Acceptance
		16.04.2003 MCT was established by Law No 4848
		19.07.2003 Temporary Article 2 of Law No 4916 in the OG
	POSSIBLE	01.08.2003 Law No 4957 in the OG
		08.11.2003 CC Decree of Annulment on 6831/17. in the OG
		16.04.2004 Regulations on Establishemnt and Announcement of CTCDRs and TCs Decree of Council of Ministers
		15.05.2004 Regulations on Establishemnt and Announcement of CTCDRs and TCs in the OG
	IMPOSSIBLE	21.07.2006 Regulations on Allocation of Public Estates to Tourism Investments in the OG
		05.12.2006 Suspension of execution decree by the 6th Chamber of the PCS
		22.03.2007 Regulations on Permissions in the Areas Treated as Forests in the OG
IMPOSSIBLE		07.05.2007 CC Decree of Annulment on 2634/8. Date of Acceptance
		24.11.2007 CC Decree of Annulment on 2634/8. in the OG
POSSIBLE		15.05.2008 Law No 5761 in the OG
		14.06.2008 Chamber of Architects informed RPP about their opinions on Law No 5761
		19.07.2008 Written Interpellation of RPP Muğla Representative Fevzi Topuz on Law No 5761

CC Constitutional Court
CTCDR Culture and Tourism Conservation and Development Region
MCT Ministry of Culture and Tourism
OG Official Gazette
PCS Presidency of Council of State
RPP Republican People's Party
RT Republic of Turkey
TC Tourism Center

3.4.6 Law No 5761

Legal gap formed after the CC Decree[18] annulling the provisions of Tourism Encouragement Law No 2634 arranging procedures and principles regarding the allocation of forest lands to tourism activities was filled one year later when Law No 5761 came into force (Coşkun, 2008b) (**Table 5**).

The Law No 5761 was enacted in May 7, 2008. The Law[19] brought 5 criteria that can be grouped under five main headings. The first one is about the characteristics of the allocated area. The Law has abondoned the concept supposing forest lands equivalent to and having the same characteristics with Treasury lands; and states that forest lands could be allocated to tourism only if there are not sufficient Treasury lands; and that forest lands to be allocated to tourism will not be able to exceed five per thousand of total forest lands of the province (Coşkun, 2008b). The second criterion is about the sorts of investment. The Law No 5761 allows eight sorts of tourism investments (health tourism, thermal tourism, winter tourism, eco-tourism, golf tourism, coastal tourism, yacht tourism, and sports tourism) in forest lands (Coşkun, 2008b). Legal arrangements for health, thermal and winter tourism are deemed compatible with annulment reasons of CC (Coşkun, 2008b). However, legal arrangements for other sorts of tourism are not deemed compatible with annulment reasons of CC (Coşkun, 2008b). They do not include the criteria of obligation and inevitability (Coşkun, 2008b). The third criterion is related to the construction measures in the allocated forest area. According to the Law, maximum construction ratio of forest lands allocated to tourism is determined as 0,30. In addition to this, a floor area ratio (FAR) should be determined. While Forestry Law No 6831 limits the right of possessors to 0,06, this permit does not seem lawful (Coşkun, 2008b). And the later criterion is about the responsibility of the investor. To the Law, the investor has to pay for afforestation and maintenance costs for an area three times larger than the allocated land; and the sanction for this obligation is not to issue Tourism Investment or Operation Certificate (Coşkun, 2008b). The final criterion is about the

[18] E:2006/169, K:2007/55 in May 7, 2007

[19] Çoşkun (2008b) explains in detail the problem of contradiction about the Law No 5761 in relation to the Article 153 of the Constitution.

utilization principles of forest lands transferred to the MCT. According to the provisions of Law No 5761, the basics regarding the allocation and lease of forest lands will be determined by the MCT, the MF and the MEF towards the principles of transparency, reliability, equal treatment, active and effective use of public resources (Coşkun, 2008b). The MCT is authorized for allocating forest lands to individuals and legal entities from Turkey and abroad (Coşkun, 2008b). It is not possible to vest executive power with a general and unlimited arrangement authority about the subjects stipulated to be arranged by the law (Coşkun, 2008b). Arrangement authority of executive power is limited, complementary and dependent (Coşkun, 2008b). For this reason, the authority of making general rules cannot be vested to executive power on a subject unarranged by laws (Coşkun, 2008b).

Although the Law appeared to bring limitations for the forest lands to be allocated for tourism purposes, it is possible to note that it has limited concern towards the conservation of forest lands, especially by giving the permission to construction and the types of tourism activities foreseen for such areas. The provisions of Law No 5761 do not consider sustainable forest management measures. On the contrary, it could be evaluated as a legal arrangement for bypassing the resrictions by CC Decree of Annulment.

3.4.7 Regulations on Allocation of Public Estates to Tourism Investments

Regulations on Allocation of Public Lands to Tourism Investments came into force in 1983 in order to arrange Article 8 of Tourism Encouragement Law (Çağlar, 2007). However it did not include the sanctions providing that public allocations are made in favor of public interest (Çağlar, 2007). Regulations on Allocation of Public Estates to Tourism Investments came into force by publishing in the Official Gazette No 26235 in July 21, 2006 (TC, KTB). As distinct from the 1983 Regulations, it covers only forest lands in culture and tourism conservation and development regions, and their sub-regions determined by the plans and tourism centers (TC, KTB) (**Table 5**). On the other hand, it introduced the possibility of public land allocations to main

investor for 75 years in culture and tourism conservation and development regions (Duru, 2007).

The allocation of forest lands is made in accordance with Tourism Encouragement Law. Whenever the path of tourism investors was locked up by CC Decrees of Annulment, making amendments to Tourism Encouragement Law emerged as a solution. Laws No 4957 and 5761 were such amendments. **Table 5** indicates the mentioned situation and conflicts between legislative, executive and juridical powers of the Government.

3.5 Concluding remarks

This chapter has analyzed how far the legal, institutional, policy and stakeholder dimensions of allocation of forest lands for tourism investments have integrated the notion and components of 'sustainability' in Turkey. Turkey has adhered to several international conventions in order to ensure the sustainability in economic, socio-cultural and environmental fields. However, as this chapter has revealed, the concepts of sustainable development, sustainable tourism and sustainable forest management have not been perceived sufficiently, and accepted widely in Turkey by public authorities at national, regional and local levels. Although some documents, such as legal arrangements and five-year development plans, mention these ideas, the understanding and components of sustainability have not been introduced or successfully integrated into the policy, legal and institutional structures of both forest management and tourism planning in Turkey. That is to say, there is no national strategy developed on a sustainability approach integrating economic, socio-cultural and environmental dimensions of forest management and tourism development. This, in turn, leads to the undermining of preservation of essential ecological processes, protection of human heritage and bio-diversity, planning the use of forest lands and its resources to provide long-term economic liveliness and benefits for nations and localities, and thus to improve the quality of life of local communities in accordance with their values, needs and aspirations. The lack of such a national strategy also brings about the absence of further legal documents, such as laws, by-laws and

regulations, national, regional and local plans that encourage sustainable practices in forest management and forest land allocated for tourism purposes. In Turkey, equally important is the lack of promotion of national, regional and local interventions that are research-based and that lead to action and innovation in strategy and policy development. Furthermore, the deficiency in an integrated approach to the sustainable forest management and tourism planning shows its inadequacies at the institutional and financial aspects of planning and implementation processes. Hence, compared to Canada and Australia, much has to be done in Turkey in order to acquire a policy, legal, institutional and financial structure encompassing effectively and successfully the components of sustainability in the allocation of forest lands for tourism investments.

Turkey is **one of the leading tourism countries** of the world. As a result, tourism receipts constitute **an important input** for the national economy. On the other hand, Turkey is prone to **negative economic effects** of tourism. For instance, **excessive growth** in tourism sector endangers **the sustainability of other sectors** such as forestry and agriculture. Turkish legislation lacks **the measures to protect the declining sectors** and activities against an unbalanced growth of tourism sector. Therefore, necessary legal arrangements should be made, and essential measures should be taken for sustainable development of both tourism and other sectors.

Undoubtedly, tourism in Turkey contributes to regional development of poor settlements such as forest villages by creating **new sources of income**. Moreover, it causes **the rebirth of local and traditional cultural activities**. However, it could also degrade social and cultural values of residents. Thus a comprehensive understanding to the tourism development that considers and respects on the localities' socio-cultural values, as well as their needs and aspirations, is needed for a sustainable tourism development in Turkey.

Forest lands of Turkey have been allocated to not **only recreative and day visitor activities** but also **tourist accommodations** unlike forest lands in the developed countries. An expected result of this approach is **a larger scale environmental and**

visual pollution in forests. In addition, these facilities cause **overcrowding** and overcrowding **damages to wildlife habitats**. In order to prevent this, **rational limitations** should be made in the legislation for forest lands to be allocated to tourism investments.

In Turkey, there are several categories of conservation for natural resources such as State forests, national parks, nature parks, nature monuments, special environmental protection areas, natural sites etc. There are several public institutions preparing plans for these areas too. In fact, their objectives are the same: The conservation of natural resources. On the other hand, there are public institutions responsible for urban development, such as MCT, special provincial administrations, municipalities, and they determine new areas for urban developments, including tourism developments, either on agricultural or forested areas. Therefore, one way of ensuring a healthy decision-making process might be to establish a planning system that will provide coordination and cooperation among the state agencies at the national, regional and local levels for the forest use and management. Policy, legal and institutional mechanisms should be developed for the successful and efficient operation of such a planning system. In this sense, work with the universities and the promotion of researches on the governance issues is of crucial importance. Such an institutional organization could assess the pros and cons of planning decisions better. In this way, the boundaries of the areas reserved for conservation and development could be drawn clearly. Apart from this, planning hierarchy should be redescribed and respected by central and local governments.

Beside the necessary changes in the institutional level, the introduction of collaborative planning understanding is of great importance. Developing strong, flexible and dynamic partnerships among stakeholders (i.e., public and private sectors, NGOs and local communities) and continuous consultation with them will lead to more inclusive decision-making processes and thereby providing us with sustainable policy and strategy developments on the allocation of forest lands for tourism investments in Turkey. Necessary policy design specifically should be made for local community involvement, engagement and empowerment.

CHAPTER 4

BELEK TOURISM CENTER (BTC) IN ANTALYA: A CASE STUDY ON TOURISM-ORIENTED ALLOCATION OF FOREST LANDS

This chapter focuses on Belek Tourism Center (BTC) in Antalya where was previously covered with a forest. Upon the decisions of the central government, a significant part of the forest was opened up to the development of hotels and golf courses. The chapter examines whether 'sustainability' measures have been taken while allocating forest lands for the purpose of tourism in Belek; and analyzes positive and negative effects of such a top-down development regarding the economic, socio-cultural and environmental sustainability. The first section introduces the province of Antalya and summarizes its contribution to national tourism. The second section describes the urban development in BTC. The next section assesses the success and effectiveness of the transformation of forest lands into a tourism center in terms of economic, socio-cultural and environmental sustainability. Then, the last section represents a brief discussion of the findings.

4.1 The province of Antalya and its contribution to national tourism

The province of Antalya is located along the Mediterranean coast in the southwest of Turkey (**Figure 22**). Antalya is the leading tourism destination of the country in terms of bed capacity and tourist arrivals (Kaya and Smardon, 2000; Kuvan, 2005; Kuvan and Akan, 2005; Erdem-Almaç, 2005; Erkuş-Öztürk, 2009; Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010). According to Kaya and Smardon (2000), Antalya has 40% of the total existing bed capacity in all coastal regions of Turkey. On the other hand, the number of foreign tourists visiting the country in the year 2000 was 10,428,153, while this number increased to 11,569,950 in 2001 (Kuvan and Akan, 2005). The percentage of foreign tourists visiting Antalya during these years were 31,7%, and

36,0% of the total, respectively (Kuvan and Akan, 2005). According to Turkey Statistics Institution, the number of visitors to Antalya increased from 3.518.100 in 2000 to 7.264.896 in 2005 (Erkuş-Öztürk, 2009; Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010). Antalya has the highest number of foreign visitors (48,9% of the total), the highest number of bed capacity (approximately 40% of the total) and attracts some 60% of tourism investments in Turkey (Erkuş-Öztürk, 2009; Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010).

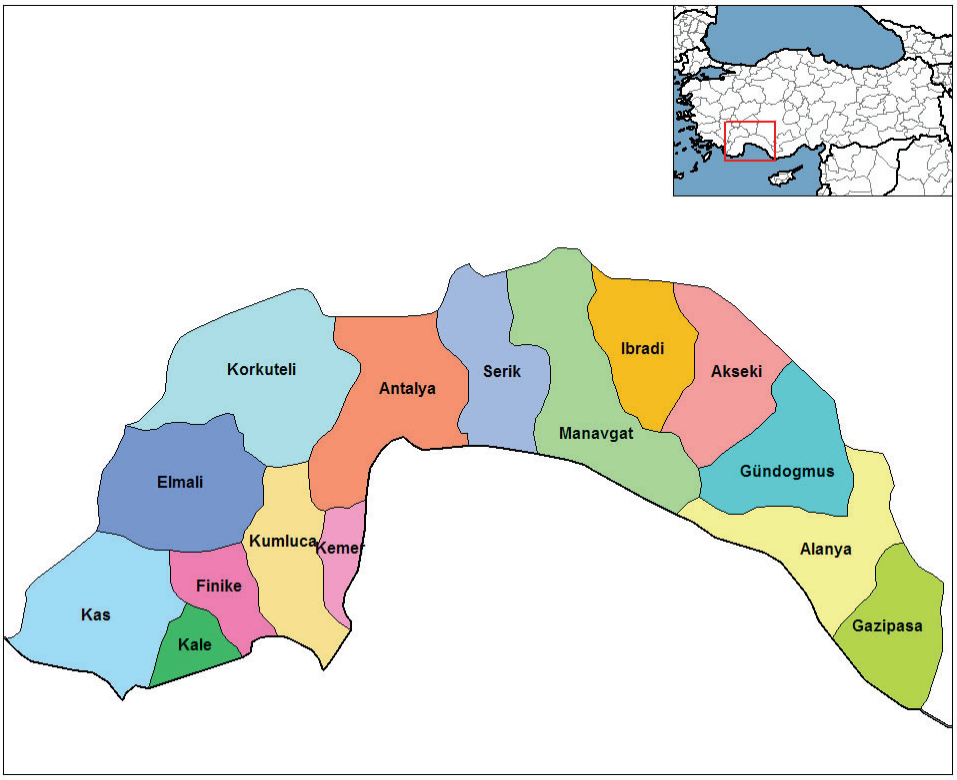


Figure 22 The Province of Antalya
Source: http://www.turkiye-rehberi.net/harita/resim/turkiye/antalya-haritasi.jpg

The coastal areas of Antalya are ideal for sun-sea-sand tourism; while investments have turned the province into the country's leading golf resort (Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010). Aside from these, the areas of rich cultural heritage satisfy the needs for cultural tourism, while the inland mountain areas cater for hikers and climbers, and the unspoilt nature for the eco-tourist (Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010). Besides the different types of tourism activities, the range of accommodation is broad,

including high quality 5-star hotels at the top end of the market, relatively large holiday villages and small boutique hotels in the middle range and hostels at the lower end (Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010). There are 4564 companies providing accommodation in Antalya, 13% of which are highly-qualified companies offering 5- or 4-star accommodation in hotels, holiday villages and boutique hotels (Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010).

Antalya has been a tourism destination since the 1960s, but saw a high rate of development in the 1970s due, in part, to tourism plans and development projects, of which the South Antalya Tourism Development Project, initiated by central government in the mid-1970s and supported by the financial resources of the World Bank, is an important example (Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010). This project triggered the development of tourism in Kemer, Belek, and Side (**Figures 23 and 24**) (Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010). However, it was the 1980s that was the turning point of tourism development in the region (Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010). New tourism legislation that came into play in 1982 brought with it several incentives, including the transfer of public land to private tourism companies which, coupled with the liberalisation of the economy, accelerated development (Erkuş-Öztürk and Eraydın, 2010).

On the east and west part of the Antalya plateau, large sandy beaches extend for kilometers with high sand dunes covered by pine trees (Kaya and Smardon, 2000). Dune areas, one of the significant natural resources of the country, are situated in coastal bands of Kemer, Belek, Side-Alanya (Atabay, 2007). While some parts of the dune, located in the first 150 – 200 meters of coastal band, are active; other parts are passive (Atabay, 2007). Forests in these regions are threshold areas protecting the coastal band (Atabay, 2007). In order to stop the movement of these dunes, forest areas and agricultural areas have been used since the Ottoman era (Atabay, 2007). However these valuable areas have been abandoned to tourism sector since the 1980s (Atabay, 2007). The next sections of this chapter is about Belek Tourism Center (BTC) in Antalya where has been selected as a case study area because of its main characteristics mentioned above.

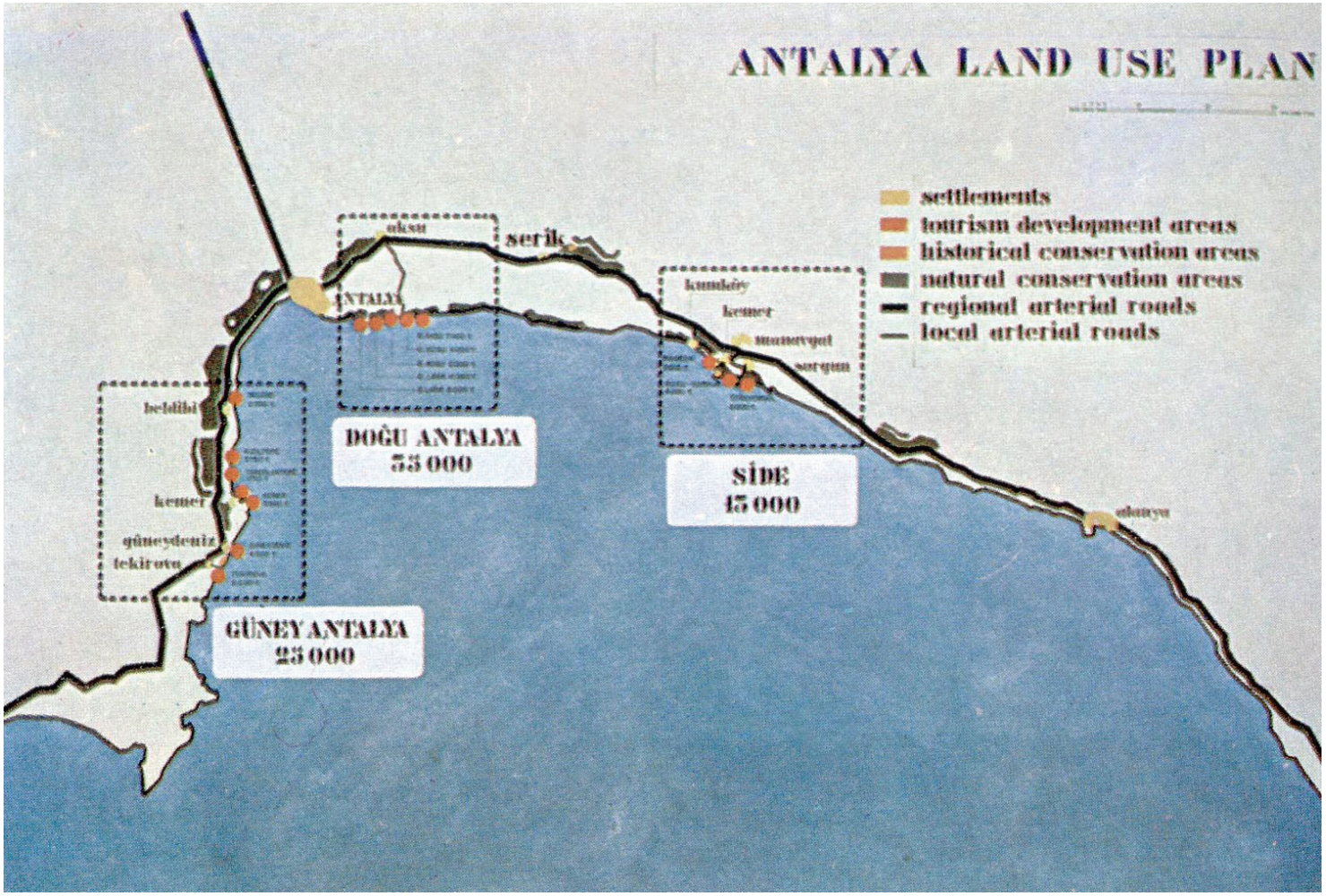


Figure 23 Antalya Land Use Plan
Source: Baykan Günay's personel archive

Figure 24 Eastern Antalya Region
Source: Baykan Günay's personel archive

4.2 The development of BTC, Antalya

Belek is located in Serik District in the east of the Central District of Antalya (**Figures 22, 24 and 25**). The development story of the Eastern Antalya dates back to the late 1950s (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). However, the first physical plan of the region, which was called 'The West Mediteranean Project', was prepared on behalf of the State Planning Organization in 1967 (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). The project, which is also known as Ole Helweg Plan, was the first tourism master plan of Turkey (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). The West Mediterranean Project covers 4.000 km² area of the provinces of Muğla and Antalya, the coastline of which is about 1.000 km (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). Priority development areas of the project were identified with this plan and the Belek site was chosen as one of the most favorable sites for a first stage development (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). The capacity of the Belek site was defined as 5000 beds by the master plan for Antalya (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). The bed capacity was increased to 13.000 in 1984 when Belek was declared a 'tourism center' (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). The declaration of Belek as a tourism center boosted the areas attractiveness in terms of tourism investments. The first tourism developments, started to operate in Belek in the early-1990s, increased the region's attractiveness more and more (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). Consequently, Belek became a tourism destination. Since then, the spatial, economical, social and cultural structures of Belek and Kadriye settlements have been changing considerably (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). Some of these changes were positive, while others were negative (Erdem-Almaç, 2005).

As mentioned in the previous section, the area of Belek is characterised by the dune series situated on approximately 15 km^2 along the beautiful scenic coastline. Whilst dune is one of the major landscape features of this part of the Mediterrenean coast, its movement causes erosion and severly damages the coastal villages. For the purpose of protecting Belek, and the neighboring villages stretching over a coastline of 20 km long, The Ministry of Forestry undertook an afforestation project between 1961 and 1987 (Kuvan and Akan, 2005). Upon the completion of this project, a total area of 22,70 km^2 was afforested with mostly Stone pines (Pinus pinea L.) and the

objective of protecting the villages from the damage of the dune movement was accomplished (Kuvan, 2005). The government of the period took preventive measures to protect the forested land in and around Belek, one of which was to grant the forest the status of a 'conservation forest' in order to protect soil and forest cover, and the ecological diversity in the region, to inhibit dune movement on the coastline, to support tourism development, and to protect the existing forestscape as it is of a great importance and value in terms of landscape architecture (Kuvan and Akan, 2005; Kuvan, 2005). Equally, the government charged The Serik Forest Enterprise, a state agency, of managing the forest (Kuvan, 2005).

Kızılgün-Türksoy (2001) studies changing natural environment between Antalya and Side in order to have a clear idea about loss of forests within this particular area. Forests are studied and planned as units called 'series' *(seri)* (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). The study area involves three forest series, namely Aksu, Çakallık, Taşağıl-Dizederesi series (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). Çakallık series was later designated as Belek Conservation Forest (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). Whenever a change occurs in forests for any reason, a report called "Unusual Production Report" meaning that some trees were cut down for reasons other than regular maintenance or management requirements is prepared by the Ministry of Forestry (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). It has been found out that for Belek Conservation Forest a series of such reports had been arranged (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). The reasons of unusual production are mainly related to tourism development in this region (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). Forestlands were demolished due to roads, golf courses and other construction activities (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). Beşgözdere – Acısu 3, second sub region in the study, is within the borders of Çakallık Forest Series and Belek Conservation Forest (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). BTC is located within this region (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). This sub region is a rich area in terms of forests (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). *Pinus brutia* is the dominant species and expands together with *maquis*, an endemic species of the Mediterranean (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). Designation of tourism center within this forest region caused roads and hotel constructions, damaging the forests (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001).

In the designation of conservation forests within the Turkish forest regime, the main concern is to protect nature, soil and water resources and plant cover, while the use of forest for the purposes of tourism or recreation comes second in the degree of importance (Kuvan, 2005). In spite of this principle which is also legally bounded, the tourism development policies of the 1980s have changed the concerns about the natural environment and assets, as can be exemplified in Belek. Following a top-down decision without consulting neither local authorities nor local communities, Belek was designated as a 'tourism center' in 1984 with its announcement in the Official Gazette of 21st November 1984. The total designated area which covered 2.800 ha. along the coastline was completely on the dune series. Between 1987 and 2006, BTC was open to the private sector investments and consequently attracted a considerable number of private investors (**Appendices B and C;** also see **Figures 26 and 27**). With the high amount of demand from private investors, and the government policy to develop tourism sector eagerly in Turkey, the boundaries of the tourism center were enlarged in 1990, 1991, 1997 and 2006. As a result, 500 ha. in 1990, 900 ha. in 1997, and 900 ha. in 2006 were added to the initially designated tourism site (**Table 6 and Figure 25**). In 1991, east boundary of the tourism center was narrowed to the west bank of Acısu Stream. However, this little boundary change was restored in 1997. Thus, it has been ignored and not been demonstrated in **Table 6** and **Figure 25**.

Table 6 Boundary Changes of BTC

LEGEND	GROUP	COUNCIL OF MINISTERS DECREE	OFFICIAL GAZETTE	AREA (Ha)
	3.	08.11.1984 / 7834	21.11.1984 / 18582	2.800
	10.	18.01.1990 / 70	05.03.1990 / 20452	3.300
	12.	13.08.1991 / 2137	20.09.1991 / 20997	
	19.	23.09.1997 / 9985	07.10.1997 / 23133	4.200
	33.	20.11.2006 / 11264	08.12.2006 / 26370	6.100

Source: TC, KTB

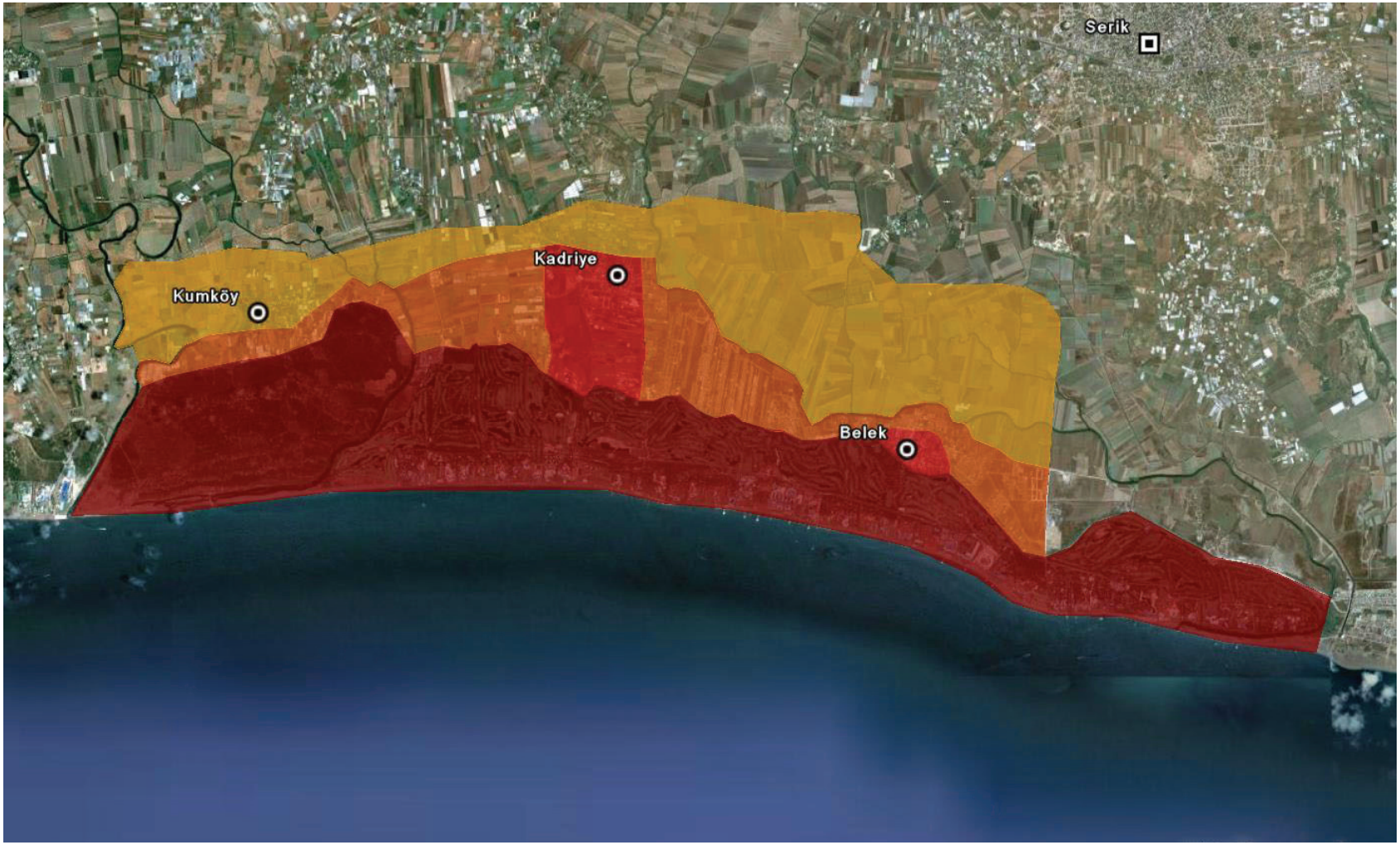


Figure 25 Boundary Changes of BTC
Source: Derived from Official Gazette Archives

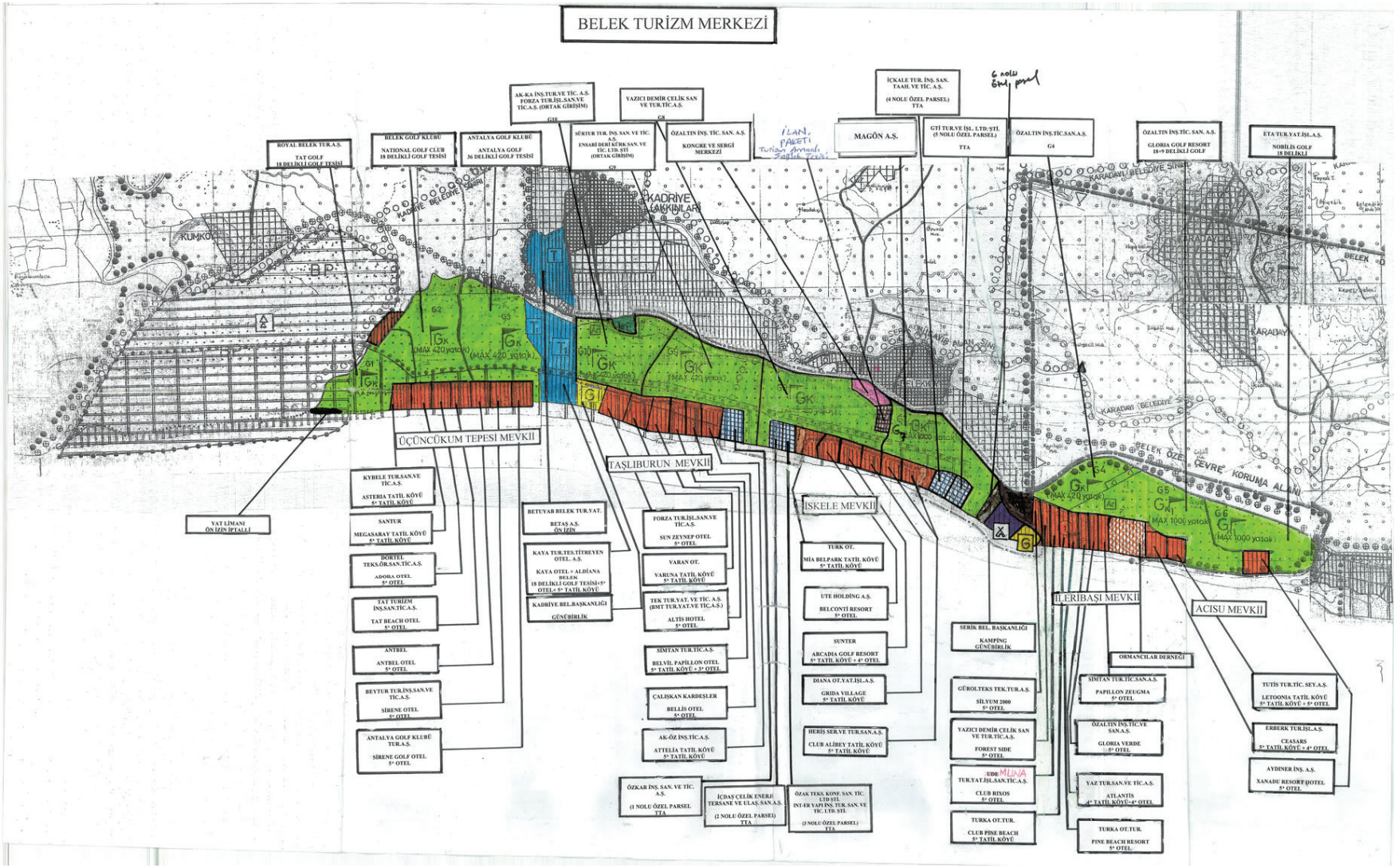


Figure 26 Antalya Belek Tourism Center
Source: RT, MCT Archives

Figure 27 BTC Hotels and Golf Clubs
Source: BTIA

Regarding bed capacities, the total planned bed capacity was initially 20,000 (Kuvan, 2005). By the end of 2001, this figure reached to 25,354 (Kuvan, 2005). Today, there are 38 accommodation facilities, 10 golf facilities, 2 daily-use facilities, 1 camping, and 1 convention and exhibition center in BTC, constituting an approximate capacity of 45.000 beds (BTIA) (**Figures 26 and 27**). When the accommodation units of 2 golf facilities in the investment phase are completed, total capacity will be expected to reach up to 47.500 beds (BTIA). **Figures 28 and 29** demonstrate development plans of BTC.

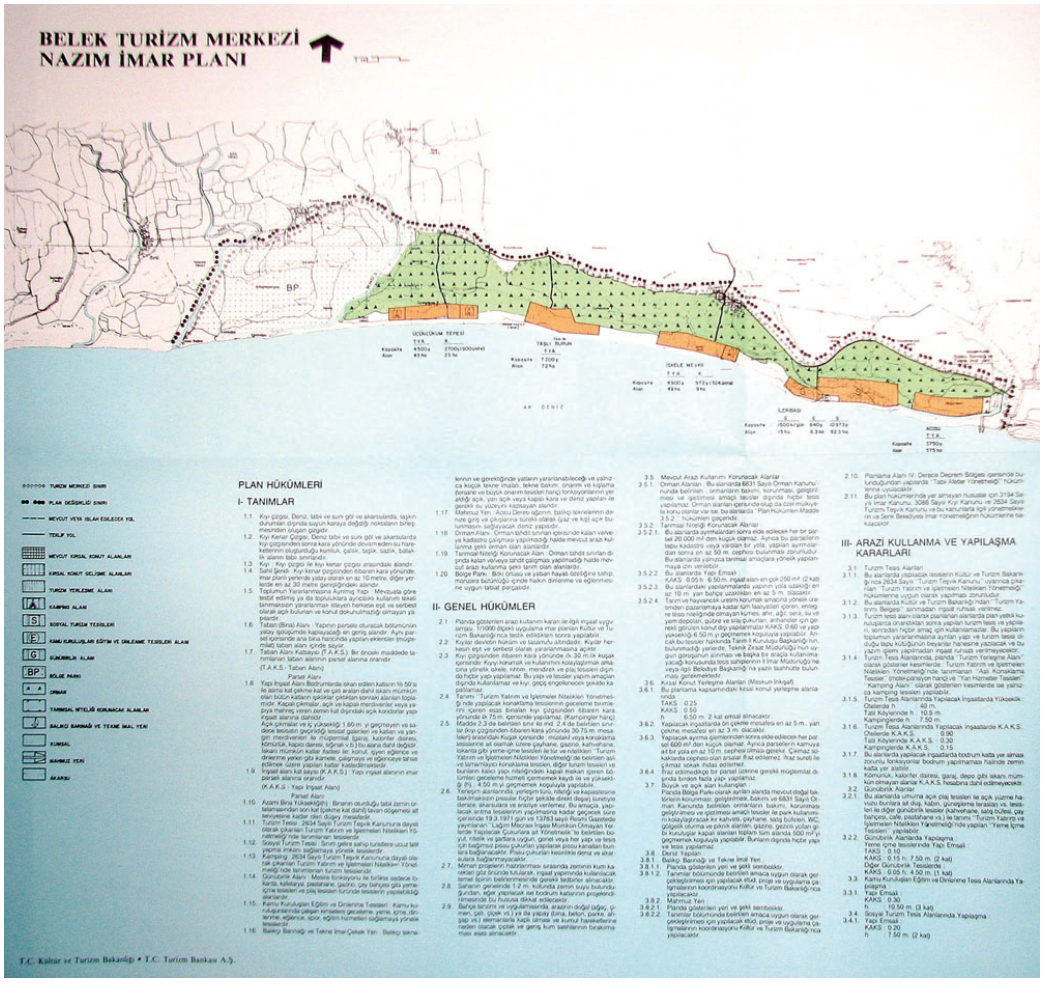


Figure 28 BTC Master Plan
Source: Baykan Günay's personel archive

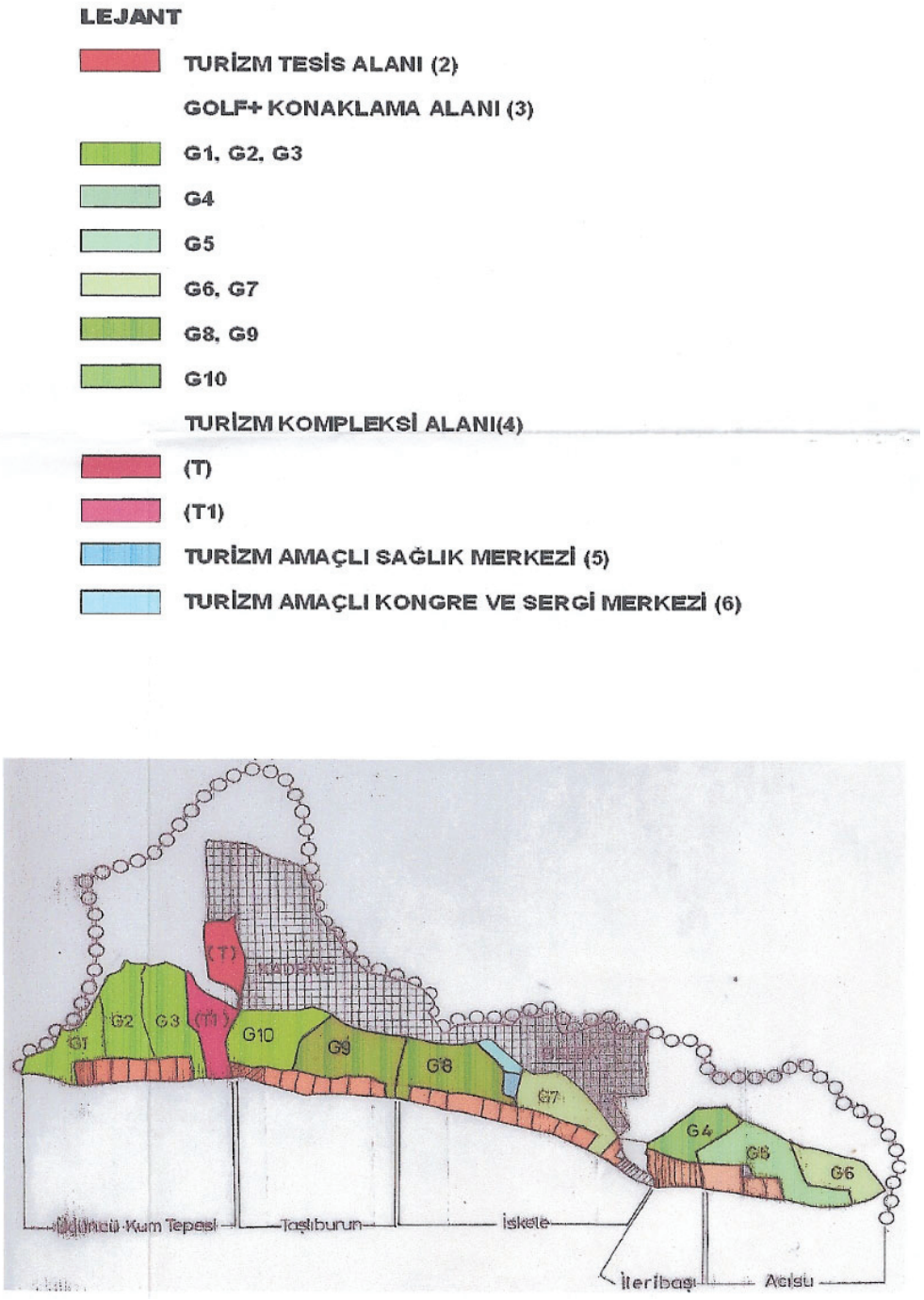


Figure 29 BTC Implementation Plan of 2006
Source: RT, MCT Archives

Increasing demand to coastal areas has led to the establishment of numerous local governement units (Günay, 2000). The settlements in rural status have established their own municipality organizations (Günay, 2000). These municipalities have opened up Mediterranean and Aegean coasts to second home developments and central government has not been able to prevent this (Günay, 2000). Second home demand of the middle class has created significant problems such as, idle bed capacity, infrastructure, damage to natural and historical assets, and the development of forest and agricultural areas (Günay, 2000). In fact, second home development has served less public interest, and has raised less environmental awareness than tourism facilities could provide (Günay, 2000). It is estimated that there are 50.000 – 70.000 second homes in Kadriye and Belek settlements (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). Erdem-Almaç (2005) claims that summer housing development cannot be accepted as tourism development. There are two main bases of this argument; first, 'summer housing' is based on private ownership and the owners of a summer housing generally have an attitude of having almost all their holidays in the same place where their summer houses exist (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). Therefore, it is hard to call these people as tourists (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). However, tourism facilities are open to public use; and tourists benefiting from these accommodation units generally prefer to have their holidays in different places (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). Second, consumption types of summer-house/property owners and tourists are totally different (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). Such second-home developments, located to the north and east of BTC, cover as large areas as golf courses. In other words, they have grown rapidly and occupied a significant amount of urban development area around Belek, bringing about a strong development pressure around their immediate periphery, and thereby endangering agricultural and forest lands nearby (**Table 7, Figure 30**).

Table 7 Belek Land Use

LEGEND	LAND USE	AREA (Ha.)	%
	GOLF COURSES	**1089**	**39,12**
	G1	83	
	G2	92	
	G3	92	
	G4	45	
	G5	89	
	G6	80	
	G7	104	
	G8	141	
	G9	141	
	G10	97	
	1507	125	
	ACCOMODATIONS	**480**	**17,24**
	Üçüncü Kum Tepesi	95	
	Taşlıburun	100	
	İskele	120	
	İleribaşı	60	
	Acısu	105	
	TOURISM COMPLEXES	**165**	**5,93**
	T, T1	145	
	5, 6	20	
	DAILY USE & CAMPING	**65**	**2,33**
	Kadriye Municipality	15	
	Belek Municipality	50	
	SETTLEMENTS	**125**	**4,49**
	Kadriye	85	
	Belek	40	
	SECOND HOMES	**860**	**30,89**
	North	580	
	East	280	
	TOTAL	**2784**	**100,00**

Figure 30 Belek Land Use

4.2.1 Belek Tourism Investors Association (BTIA / BETUYAB)

In order to ensure the development of healthy (and also sustainable) tourism areas/regions or centers, Günay (2000) underlines the importance of comprehensive planning that will particularly enable to set a close relation between urban planning and physical infrastructural investments. In this sense, Belek Tourism Investors Association (BTIA), founded by tourism investors in South Antalya Tourism Area and Belek Tourism Center, became a milestone in the collaboration of public and private sectors regarding the tourism developments in Turkey, and to resolve the prominent problems of tourism investors in Belek (Günay, 2000).

BTIA is a management association founded in 1988 by the investor companies of the region with the support and leading of the Ministry of Tourism (UN, ESA, DSD, 1999). It aims to resolve major problems in BTC in partnership with public and private sectors (UN, ESA, DSD, 1999). Every company investing in the BTC is obligated to be a member of BTIA (UN, ESA, DSD, 1999). In August 2001, the number of 'firm' members was 32 (BTIA), while this figure is 41 in 2009 (RT, MCT Archives).

BTIA developed a project called 'Belek 2000', which was chosen by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs as one of the most successful examples in terms of 'sustainable tourism' development in 2000 within the framework of LA21 (UN, ESA, DSD, 1999). The BTIA's project aiming to develop 'sustainable tourism' in BTC in cooperation with investors, local inhabitants and official business and associations, and the relevant ministries (Ministry of Tourism, Ministry of Environment, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Forestry etc.) (UN, ESA, DSD, 1999). The support to BTIA's project was given by the consulting services of various universities, including Hacettepe University and Mediterranean University. From each BTIA member, a fee for infrastructure participation was collected at the beginning of the project (UN, ESA, DSD, 1999). Since the onset of the project, each BTIA member also pay a monthly fee for subscription to the project (UN, ESA, DSD, 1999). High-cost projects are financed by the Ministries, the public

establishments, and the BTIA investors, based on equal shares (UN, ESA, DSD, 1999). The project was announced as the first project in Turkey that brought all the investors of a region together to hand over the management of a tourism center by an establishment like BTIA to develop the region. The BTIA's project includes the following components:

- As the Ministry of Tourism has decided that the region's sustainable tourism development can not support any further tourism investments, new investments will not be allowed.
- All tourism establishments are connected to three wastewater purification plants. Some of the wastewater is used for irrigation, while the remaining water is completely cleaned and released back into nature
- Infrastructure projects which required high financial costs and timely planning were finished before the completion of the BTC.
- Supported by the scientific consulting of the universities, the campaign against mosquitoes, houseflies and sand flies continues, achieving success rate of 90%.
- The universities continue to investigate the ecological infrastructure and its regional diversity, and to publish documents on biological diversity. Awareness-raising studies have also been produced, including three books and various posters, ("100 Birds of Belek", "250 Plants of Belek" and "20 Endemic Plants of Belek").
- Fire hydrants have been placed in the forests under the protection of the region, and a fire engine capable of negotiating the regional topography has been purchased. Two firemen, hired and paid by BETUYAB, are on duty through the year, reinforced by four more during the season when forest fire risks are high. To prevent fire and dangers, communication systems have been installed, BETUYAB's office serving as their centre.
- Various projects, protocols and collective work has been done with NGOs. (UN, ESA, DSD, 1999)

According to the BTIA's project, the success of the BTC is related to the new and different nature of the organization and to the consultative support from universities. It is important to have studies that are scientifically based, and directed toward the future. The lack of private or public separation of the investors fostered an attitude of trust by the state, private sector and local public towards BTIA, encouraging them to work together. (UN, ESA, DSD, 1999).

The BTIA as a regional base initiative of public-private partnership, despite some positive aspects, as will be shown below, could not bring about a very sustainable tourism development in Belek. Despite being shown by UN as a success story, the

BTC's tourism development is rather an example of unsuccessful story in terms of sustainability.

4.3 Dimensions of sustainability in BTC

BTC was developed through a planning approach only focusing on the designated area of Belek for tourism investments with no concern to its surrounding and neighboring sites. This section seeks to show both the positive and negative effects of BTC, but mostly tries to emphasize the shortcomings of the project resulted from the lack of an integrated, holistic approach embracing environmental, socio-cultural and economic dimensions of sustainability, espousing policy, legal, institutional and financial aspects of the planning and implementation processes. Equally important for this section is to show the absence of collaborative planning approach bringing partnerships among public, private, community and voluntary sectors. Here, it is argued that the development of BTC and similar tourism centers in Turkey was based on the eager desire of the government to open up the Mediterreanean and Aegean coasts to mass tourism as soon as possible, and to attract national and international investments to these areas at the expense of damaging natural environments, creating unbalanced local economies and vulnerable local communities. Thereofore, this section claims that 'sustainability' measures have not been sufficiently taken while allocating forest lands for the purpose of tourism in Belek.

4.3.1 Economic dimensions

The economic structure of Belek and Kadriye settlements is based on mostly tourism-related commercial activities (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). The working population in Belek is approximately 30% of total population (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). The distribution of working population over the sectors shows us that approximetaly 3/4 of working population have jobs directly related to tourism sector in Belek settlement (Erdem-Almaç, 2005).

The BTC development has drastically changed the urbanscape and economic structure of Belek. From a small, humble forest village, it has turned into an urban center, with its associated infrastructure investments (road, electricity, water, etc). The development of tourism sector has brought economic vitality to the area, by increasing production and consumption, generating new economic activities, especially in service sector, and creating new employment opportunities with better wages for the Belek community. Thus a part of the local community has welcome tourism development in the area, mainly because of its economic contributions (Kuvan and Akan, 2005).

In spite of the positive impacts, tourism has negatively influenced the local economy which was previously dependent on agriculture and foresty, and is now mainly dependent on tourism. As Geray (2007) suggests, however, excessively binding tourism and structuring local, regional or even national economy according to it is highly risky, since tourism is generally affected negatively by economic crisis, or the decrease in sectoral demands in the first place. The over-dependence of tourism and undermining other sectors therefore suggests the creation of an unbalanced local economy in Belek.

The second important drawback is the uncontrolled development. The rapidly growing number of tourism companies in Belek led to exceed the carrying capacity of the locality and increase the competition among them, while lowering the prices of the services, and consequently, the revenues and profits in tourism sector (Geray, 2007). This negative impact gets much bigger if it reaches up to a threshold (Geray, 2007). Under such conditions, one of the measures tourism companies take is to buy local commodities and services at lower prices, and to reduce wages of workers of hotels, golf courses, etc. Thus, although tourism has brought about local economic development, its contribution to local economy reduces, as the competitiveness within the sector excessively increases.

4.3.2 Socio-cultural dimensions

Before being announced as a tourism center in 1984, the nomad population (*yörük*) had dwelt in Belek coasts, droughty in summers and swampy in winters. They constructed wooden structures (*oba*) there. (**Figures 31 and 32**) Due to the tourism developments in the region, socio-cultural life has witnessed a range of alterations and transformations in the recent 25 years. Not only social and cultural lifestyle but also expectations and political attitudes of the local community have been formed in line with these changes. As a result, the processes of establishing the instutiton of municipality, land speculation, migration and second-home development, mentioned in the previous sections, have begun in the surrounding rural settlements.

Erdem-Almaç (2005) indicates a considerable population has been migrated to Belek and Kadriye from neighbouring rural settlements, Serik, Antalya, other provinces and abroad. Although they are small settlements, they do not exhibit the characteristics of rural settlements from socio-economic viewpoint (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). Most second-home owners are from big cities, such as İstanbul, Ankara, Antalya, Konya or from Germany (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). This makes Belek and Kadriye settlements heterogenous from socio-cultural viewpoint (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). Most Belek and Kadriye populations have tourism-related jobs (Erdem Almaç, 2005). Although some locals still have jobs based on agriculture sector, their number decreases day by day (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). People, whose income is from tourism, are generally from upper income group (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). Therefore, almost no lower income group exists in the settlement (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). On the other hand, education level is generally high in all of the society (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). The average number of families at a house is 1,1 and average household size is 3,37 in Belek (Erdem-Almaç, 2005). These statistics shows the urban character of Belek settlement (Erdem-Almaç, 2005).

Figure 31 Previous Condition of Belek Coasts
Source: Baykan Günay's personel archive

Figure 32 Wooden Structures of Nomad People in Belek Coast
Source: Baykan Günay's personel archive

Upon a top-down decision, the tourism center that was developed with no consultation or involvement of local community, significantly undermined the social justice and equity. BTC was planned only to cater the needs of private sector investments and up-market tourists through the central government's policy of developing mass tourism in the area, while local communities' needs, aspirations or values have not been given any consideration. The outcomes of such a project have mainly benefited the private sector, international high-income tourist groups and visitors, while endangering the interests of local communities and the public interest in general.

It is possible to see the outcomes of such a piecemeal tourism development at both national and local levels. At the national level, BTC has operated mainly to serve foreign tourists, while a small population of domestic visitors has benefited from the tourism investments. According to Belek Tourism Investors Association (BTIA), almost three fourths of the tourists visiting Belek were foreigners between 2004 and 2008 (BTIA). (**Figure 33**) Most of the domestic tourists having their holidays in BTC's luxury hotels are from higher socio-economic classes, whereas people from lower socio-economic classes of the country and the local public have a little chance to benefit from these tourist establishments, golf courses, coastal zones and the remaining forest lands.

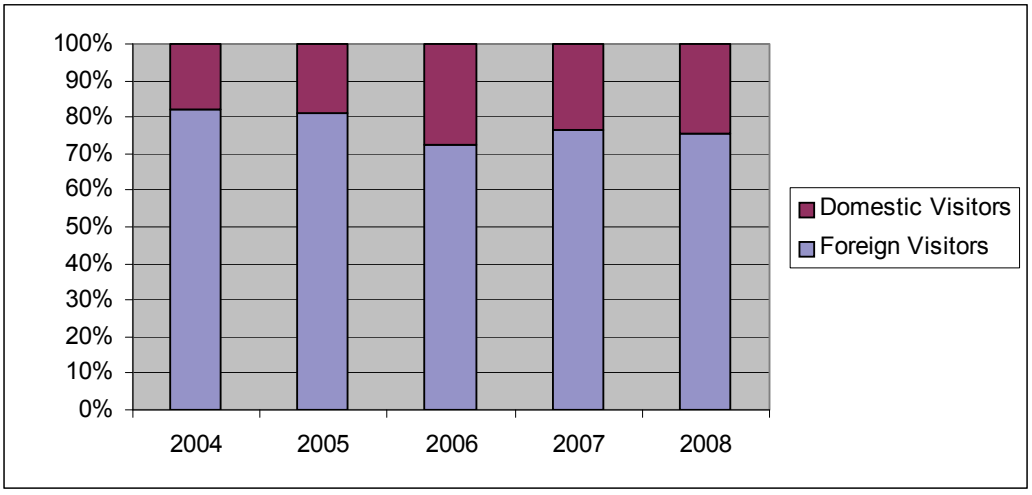


Figure 33 Domestic and Foreign Visitors to Belek
Source: Derived from BTIA

BTC development has directly influenced the daily life of locals. First, it changed the legal status of Belek; that is to say, Belek has become a municipality, while losing its status of being a forest village (Kuvan, 2005). With this change, some local residents who used to work in the forestry and agricultural sectors lost their jobs (Kuvan, 2005). Equally important was the change in the local traditional values and customs in the daily life of locals. For example, Belek people who traditionally used to spend time in the forest and seaside for different purposes, such as recreational, had to stop practising their customs due to the recent restrictions brought in by the state agencies and tourism investors on the way of using forests and beaches (Kuvan, 2005). The recent BTC development has also restricted the accessibility of the public spaces (such as coastal and forested areas) which should be ideally open to everybody.

The BTC development plan only focused on the area bounded by the tourism investments. The local settlements, local communities and the environment were not within the scope of the project. Thus, the 'sustainability' measures, such as the development of sustainable local communities, meeting their needs locally wherever possible, provision of social services, such as health and education, improvement in the quality of local life, protecting the cultural identity of locality, and empowerment of all sections of the community to participate in decision-making process about their own community were generally out of the concern of the BTC development. Thus, the outcomes or benefits of such a large-scale tourism development were arguably rather piecemeal, limited and short-sighted for locality and local community.

Thus, the ideas and feelings of locals about BTC in specific, and the developmet of tourism in general vary depending on their socio-demographic characteristics, as well as their individual benefit from tourism sector. According to an in-depth research carried out by Kuvan and Akan (2005), the residents who have their major source of income from a tourism-related job are more welcoming of the tourism development, and less disapproving of the negative effects of tourism, compared to their counterparts who do not have a pecuniary interest in tourism. Conversely, residents who do not get any economic benefit from tourism, as in the case of the respondents in the lower income categories, and those who do not have tourism-related job, are

more critical of the tourism development in Belek; because they think that tourism is benefiting only a few, and because they believe that misallocation of land in expectation of political gain is the main reason for the loss of forests in the area (Kuvan and Akan, 2005). As also seen from the comments and ideas of local inhabitants, BTC has already created serious doubts about the future of Belek, especially due to its negative effects on local economy, socio-cultural life, and environments.

4.3.3 Environmental dimensions

BTC was developed with almost no concern to environmental sustainability. That is to say, the use of energy, water and other natural resources efficiently and with care, minimizing, re-using and recycling wastes, limiting pollution to levels that do not damage natural systems, and valuing and protecting the diversity of nature were generally out of the scope of the BTC development scheme. Consequently, BTC has caused several environmental effects. First of all, a significant number of trees were cut down to open up lands for the development of tourist facilities and associated infrastructure in Belek. This has damaged not only the lands these amenities have occupied, but also the nature and its ecosystems such as natural wildlife, pasture, scrub, forest, dune etc. (Geray, 2007). The deforestation is one of the most important negative environmental effects in BTC. By the end of 2001, the total forest area allocated for 39 tourism facilities was 8.625.352 m^2, constituting approximately 39% of the forested land under the forest regime within the jurisdiction of BTC (Kuvan, 2005; Kuvan and Akan, 2005).

Also, on account of rapid tourism development and the allocation of forests to tourism, the second homes have increased rapidly in nearby surroundings adjacent to the forest (Kuvan, 2005). This development has induced unplanned and extensive land use for construction, and has thus put additional pressure on the forest for the purpose of residences (Kuvan, 2005). Additionally, the daily recreation activities (especially, cycling, jogging, trekking and picknicking) by domestic and foreign

tourists and a few residents in forests have caused environmental pollution (Kuvan, 2005).

Furthermore, Belek is one of the 17 most important nesting sites in Turkey for marine turtles (Caretta caretta), described by IUCN (The World Conservation Union) as an endangered species (Kuvan, 2005). Due to all the tourism developments and their damages on natural environment, Belek was announced as a 'special environment protection region'. The area is clearly vulnerable to tourism's negative environmental effects as a rapidly developing tourism center with these protection priorities.

Briefly put, extensive deforestation due to the BTC development, additional development pressure for second homes, the artifical water systems of tourism amenities, overcrowding, solid wastes, water and visual pollution have severely damages the natural resources, and negatively effected flora and fauna. Although the recent tourism developments and their damages on environment have risen the environmental awareness in the area, there is a vital and urgent need to take action to protect the natural environment (Kuvan and Akan, 2005).

4.3.3.1 Environmental impacts of golf courses

Wheeler and Nauright's (2006) detail study presents the environmental impacts of golf. First of all, they point out how the development of golf courses negatively affect natural environment as follows:

> It is now known that golf course construction often consists of some or all of the following practices that can be extremely deleterious to the surrounding environment: Clearing of natural vegetation, deforestation, destruction of natural landscapes and habitats and changes in local topography and hydrology. The clearing of trees and vegetation leads to gullying and erosion, which in turn increases sediment loads in runoff to nearby bodies of water. It has been said that erosion during course construction can damage the flora and fauna of lakes and streams as much as other building projects. Deforestation also renders land more prone to the effects of erosion. Additionally, it results in an increased flux of dissolved ions and nutrients,

> which can lead to downstream nutrient enrichment and unwanted algal blooms. Alterations to local topography and hydrology will change the quantity and chemistry of runoff to streams, rivers and lakes. (Wheeler and Nauright's, 2006: p. 431)

Wheeler and Nauright (2006) also indicates how golf courses impact the environment the chemicals used in the development of necessary natural environment for the sport of golf, as follows:

> One of the more obvious, and potentially dangerous, ways a golf course can impact the environment is through the large-scale application of chemicals including fertilizers, insecticides, pesticides and fungicides. These chemicals can be damaging, sometimes even lethal, to organisms that are exposed to them, either in the water, on the ground or even in the air. It is a fact that most managers and superintendents deploy a large amount of these chemicals in an effort to keep their courses as green and as free from nuisance pests as possible. There are several published studies documenting the runoff of these chemicals into surface water during course operation. Many courses also use imported or non-native grasses, which require larger doses of chemical treatment than naturally occurring turf grasses. Golf courses also can have negative impacts on wildlife, as an increasingly large body of research studies continues to demonstrate. Course construction can result in widespread habitat loss and muddied streams that disrupt natural aquatic communities and chemical exposure can be lethal. (Wheeler and Nauright's, 2006: pp.431-432)

Another important negative impact of golf courses is related to excessive water consumption, as discussed below:

> Another area of environmental impact by golf courses is water consumption. Estimates indicate that an 18-hole course consumes 3.000–5.000 cubic metres per day, which is enough to meet the daily consumption needs for 2.000 families or 15.000 individual Americans. The Worldwatch Institute makes an interesting and startling comparison: 9,5 million m^3 is the amount of water used, per day, to irrigate the world's golf courses; it is also the amount of water it would take, per day, to support 4,7 billion people at the United Nations daily minimum requirement, or over four-fifths of the world's estimated 2005 population. What confounds people even more is that so much of this water use occurs in countries or regions where water is an already scarce resource. Within the past 15 years, the International Olympic Committee, responding to concerns about the environmental impact of golf course construction and operation, decided not to include golf as a new Olympic sport. (Wheeler and Nauright's, 2006: p.438)

Since developed countries have increasingly recognized the negative impacts of golf course development on natural environment, as Wheeler and Nauright (2006) point out, international golf community has tended to establish new golf courses in the developing world, where the potential hazards of golf courses have not been discussed and recognized widely:

> Environmental problems can be severe, for humans, wildlife and the ecosystem, and are more of a problem in developing nations without the infrastructure to oppose unchecked and irresponsible construction and operation. The media have played at least some role in the expansion of golf and the extension of some of its associated problems through its glorified coverage of pristine courses and major events. Efforts have been made in some parts of the world to lower the overall impact a golf course has on its surroundings, and have been successful. As long as developers continue to prey on developing nations as sites for the latest super resort and golf course, however, the negative effects will continue to be felt in at least some parts of the world. (Wheeler and Nauright, 2006)

As for the case of Belek, golf courses have been introduced to plan legends of BTC in the second half of the 1980s with plan revisions (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). They signify changes in plans, and leisure and recreation concepts of the society (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). Golf course is neither a climatologically convenient sport, nor a culturally adopted recreation activity for the region (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). Construction of golf courses has led to cutting down trees in the fragile forests of the region (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). The continuity and unity of forestland keeps its wilderness, however golf courses are designed within forestland and after clearence of some sites from trees, the forestland is fragmented, meaning that it is tamed and its unity is damaged (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001). Kızılgün-Türksoy (2001) suggests that a golf course should have been cretaed in the long run in areas where trees would be removed naturally or regarding the needs of forest management instead of clearing the forest from trees in order to build a golf course within a short period of time.

Timur Kara[20] took aerial photographs of golf courses in Belek in 2005 and 2007. (**Figures 34, 35 and 36**) After publishing these photographs in Vila Int.'s web site (www.vila-int.com), discussions restarted on tourism-oriented allocation of forest lands and the number of trees cut down in BTC. According to the article by Hasan Alaybeyoğlu in October 31st, 2007 in Radikal[21], there were 630.000 trees in BTC. While forest engineers estimated that at least 350.000 trees have been cut down, Hediye Gündüz[22] claimed that about 500.000 trees have been cut down in the region. Then, "Is it true that about 500.000 trees have been cut down in Belek?" asked Antalya Representative Hüsnü Çöllü in the written interpellation no 7/732-1460 submitted to the Turkish National Assembly. "According to the data obtained from Antalya Regional Directorate of Forestry, 111.400 trees have been cut down in ten golf courses allocated by the Ministry." replied by the Ministry of Culture and Tourism with the correspondence no 12.12.2007/209045. Today, there are eleven golf courses in BTC with a total area of 1.089 ha. (**Table 7, Figure 30**) If there had been 630.000 trees in the region, there was a tree in about each 17 m² plot. This figure sounds realistic considering the previous density of the conservation forest in BTC (**Figure 37**). As a proper planning approach to golf tourism, environmental responsibility and considerations should be given greater priority and such investments should be directed from sensitive natural resources towards environmentally less vulnerable areas in Turkey.

[20] An aerial photographer and the manager in Vila Int. an aerial photography company
[21] A daily newspaper in Turkey
[22] Head of Antalya Office of Turkish Association for the Conservation of Nature (AOTACN)

Figure 34 Aerial Photographs of Golf Courses in BTC in 2005 and 2007
Source: www.vila-int.com

Figure 35 Aerial Photograph of BTC
Source: www.vila-int.com

Figure 36 Aerial Photograph of a Golf Course in BTC
Source: www.vila-int.com

Figure 37 Previous Condition of Belek Conservation Forest
Source: www.serik.bel.tr

4.3.3.2 Efforts of NGOs

To protect natural environment from uncontrolled and unsustainable tourism development, a number of NGOs have sought to intervene in the planning process of tourism development in Belek. First, Society for the Protection of Nature (SPN / DHKD) and World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) Türkiye prepared the Belek Management Plan (BMP), covering 4.475 hectares, in 1996. The plan is delimited by the Aksu to the west, Acısu2 to the east, Kumköy and Belek villages to the north. The plan points out the negative effects of tourism developments on the natural environment, ecological life, fauna and flora systems. The BMP was based on the notions of 'optimality', 'diversity', 'sustainability', 'comprehensiveness' and 'cooperation' in the use of local resources (DHKD-WWF, 1996). Accordingly, it provides a zoning plan for land uses such as densely used tourist areas, absolute protection areas, rehabilitation areas, recreation areas, education and social service areas, infrastructure land uses and areas for local economic activities (DHKD-WWF, 1996). The plan claims that this diversity in activities will provide economic, ecological and social stability in the region and it is hoped that institutionalized coordination of these activities will succeed spatial management of them as well as prevention of conflicting usage of them and negative environmental effects (DHKD-WWF, 1996). The implicit features of the plan are explained as follows:

> The plan implicitly assumes that if public participation had been achieved in the past, problems of the tourist industry would not be observed in the region today. Therefore, the plan presents itself as an 'integrated management plan' that is necessary in order to provide a sustainable development for this very sensitive and important tourism region. It is stated that BMP aims at; making human uses compatible with the environment, reducing excess impact of tourists and other human activities, enhancing the beauties and values of Belek, improving region's socio-economic conditions. The plan proposes concrete actions for a viable future and puts forth a "participatory process for all concerned parties in order to optimize these efforts. In this respect, the plan is defined both as an environmental planning tool and an organizational instrument to confer various benefits to all participants." The plan states that tour operator, national and international organizations will be interested in it because it will prevent environmental damage to Belek's extensive tourist locality. As a target group, it is expected that investors of Belek will participate in continuous formulation and application of the BMP. It proposes

> the establishment of a particular local institution composed of major national and local bodies that will be responsible for implementation of the plan. (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001: p.96)

According to Kızılgün-Türksoy (2001), although the plan is an important step in incorporating nature within planning, and protecting "nature as a value for itself", it cannot exceed the problems emerged during previous failures of planning. Besides, this plan cannot overcome the attitude of "will to control". (Kızılgün-Türksoy, 2001)

Another important NGO sought to intervene in the planning process of BTC is The Turkish Foundation for Combating Soil Erosion, for Reforestation and the Protection of Natural Habitats (The TEMA Foundation). It prosecuted to Antalya Administrative Court in December 12, 2005 with the requests of suspension of execution and court hearing for the annulment of Belek Sub-Region Development Plan in order to prevent the damage on the nature to be developed following the allocation of 5 tourist accommodation facilities and 5 golf facilities in Belek Forest (The TEMA Foundation). The trial was especially based on the contradiction of the administrative act against international conventions in line with Article 90 of the Constitution (The TEMA Foundation). However, Antalya Administrative Court transferred the file to the Presidency of Council of State (The TEMA Foundation). The trial is pending in the Sixth Chamber of the Presidency of Council of State (The TEMA Foundation). Suspension of execution decree has been made (The TEMA Foundation). The principal decree has been awaited (The TEMA Foundation). Meanwhile, some tourism companies have intervened the trial beside the Government (The TEMA Foundation).

Upon 'the Turkish Golf Federation project of 100 golf facilities in 4 years', Antalya Office of Turkish Association for the Conservation of Nature (TACN / TTKDer) explained that this subject is not only about the construction of golf facilities and hotels but also about the construction of villas and mansions around them (AOTACN, 2005). They calculated that these 100 golf courses shall need more than 660.000 tons water per day (AOTACN, 2005). This is simply evaluated as 'injustice' (AOTACN, 2005). In addition, they mention that NASA indicated Turkey is between

the countries who have trouble about water resources in the next 40-50 years, 20% of our population lack healthy drinking water, we import agricultural products at a price of 2,5 billion USDs per year, desert conditions are dominant in Central Anatolia Region, thus golf means adding insult to injury for us (AOTACN, 2005).

4.4 Concluding remarks

This chapter, focusing on BTC in Antalya where was previously covered with a forest developed within 26 years, and where is of great importance and value in environmental terms, illustrates the transformation of a small humble forest village into a tourism center through a top-down approach. It has shown that 'sustainability' measures have not been sufficiently taken while allocating forest lands for the purpose of tourism in Belek; and underlines unbalanced outcomes of such a top-down development regarding the environmental, economic and socio-cultural sustainability. The outcome is an environment which significantly benefiting national and international large-scale developers and investors, as well as the high-income tourists and visitors, at the expense of jeopardizing the present and future benefits of local communities, and the public interests in general.

BTC is one of the three major tourism destinations in Antalya. In the near future, there shall be an approximate capacity of 50.000 beds, all of which are five-star. In addition, golf facilities in the tourism center attract rich tourists from all over the world. From this viewpoint, BTC's **contribution to national and local economy** cannot be denied. Conversely, tourism developments in the area, cause some negative economic effects. One of them is **over-dependence on tourism**. As the other sectors such as agriculture and forestry have not been supported for years, the region has an unbalanced economy. Another drawback is **uncontrolled development**. Every decision of the central government widening the tourism center or setting new tourism uses (golf, accommodation, recreation or daily-use) has increased the development demand for the region and the surrounding areas. As a result, local governments have transformed agricultural and forested lands with a considerable size into **second-home developments**.

The tourism development has served for the benefit of a small exclusive group of tourists and visitors. For locality, although it has brought **economic vitality to the area**, by increasing production and consumption, generating new economic acitivites, especially in service sector, and providing **better jobs** and **higher wages** for some local residents, these changes **have not benefited all residents**. In addition, most of coastal and forested areas of their settlements have been rendered as **inaccessible**. This has led to **social injustice** and **decrease in public interest**. On the other hand, the residents have **lost their traditional values** and **witnessed a cultural change**.

Generally, tourism development is expected to cause **environmental awareness**. However, from the very beginning, tourism development in Belek has **contradicted with the forests**. There should have been **smaller accommodation units** instead of large-scale hotel complexes. In addition, the region should have served to **recreative activities** instead of mass tourism and/or golf tourism. Violation of these principles has caused **extensive deforestation** in Antalya Belek Tourism Center. **Artificial water systems of golf courses** have damaged the natural resources. All these conversions have had **negative effects on flora and fauna** esp. marine turtles as an endangered species in the region. On the other hand, **overcrowding, solid wastes, water pollution** and **visual pollution** have emerged as other negative environmental problems.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The main concern of this thesis is to answer the question of how far public forest lands in Turkey are allocated and used regarding 'sustainability' measures. Making an extensive literature review on the notions of 'sustainability', 'sustainable development', 'sustainable forest management' and 'sustainable tourism planning', and examining institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal dimensions of tourism planning in forest lands in Canada and Australia, which are widely accepted with their advanced practices in the world, this study has drawn a theoretical framework and identified the criteria for the investigation of sustainability in forest lands allocated and used for the purpose of tourism in Turkey.

The literature survey has revealed that sustainability, wherever applicable, requires the **integration of economic, socio-cultural and environmental policies and measures**. More specifically, 'sustainable forest management' embraces the preservation of essential ecological processes, protection of human heritage and bio-diversity, as well as planning the use of forest lands and its resources to provide long-term economic liveliness and benefits for nations and localities, and thus to improve the quality of life of local communities in accordance with their values, needs and aspirations. Equally, another finding of the literature review is that, countries advanced in sustainable tourism have already introduced **a robust 'sustainability' understanding or approach into forest management**, starting from a national strategy that will shape further legal documents (laws, by-laws and regulations) to the plans and practices that would encourage sustainable practices in forest management and forest land allocated for tourism purpose. Besides, the literature survey also shows the importance of promoting **research-based** national,

regional and local (or, federal, provincial and territorial) interventions that will lead to action and innovation in product development and marketing.

Another significant finding of the literature review is that an **integrated approach** is needed for sustainable forest management. Integrated approach embraces not only ecological, socio-cultural and economic dimensions of sustainability, but also policy, legal, institutional, and financial aspects of the planning and implementation processes, and co-operative and integrated control systems.

The literature survey also reveals that **collaborative planning** is another important requirement of a sustainable forest management. Collaborative planning brings about strong, flexible and dynamic partnerships among stakeholders (i.e. private sector, NGOs and local communities) and key decision makers at all levels of government, and continuous consultation with them throughout planning and use processes of forest lands for the purpose of tourism. The investigation on both Canada and Australia shows that, in the planning and use processes, the role of the state becomes very notable. As well as its collaborative and cooperative roles, the state in both countries play a leading role in terms of developing sustainable forest strategy, plans, process and implementation, and thus safeguarding the public interest. Beside the role of the state, community involvement, engagement and community empowerment is also crucial in terms of the sustainable management of forest lands allocated and used for the purpose of tourism. Thus, both **top-down and bottom-up processes** need to complement the planning and use of forest lands for the purpose of tourism.

At **the institutional level**, the coordination and cooperation among the state agencies responsible for the forest use and management at national, regional and local level is another vital requirement for a sustainable forest management. It is therefore of utmost importance to develop mechanisms at national, regional and local levels for the efficient and effective coordination and cooperation among the state agencies.

Turkey is one of the leading tourism countries of the world. Tourism, as a sector, contributes to not only national economy (see **Figures 16 and 17**), but also regional development of poor settlements such as forest villages by creating new sources of income. It causes the rebirth of local and traditional cultural activities. Nevertheless, Turkey is prone to negative economic effects of tourism. On the one hand, excessive and uncontrolled growth in tourism sector endangers the sustainability of other sectors, such as forestry and agriculture. Turkish legislation, however, lacks the measures to protect the declining sectors and activities against an unbalanced growth of tourism sector. On the other hand, tourism degrades social and cultural values of residents. Equally important is the negative impacts of tourism to environment. Forest lands in Turkey have been allocated to not only recreation and daily-visitor activities, but also tourist accommodations, unlike forest lands in the developed countries. In this way, a significant amount of forest land has been destroyed along the Mediterranean and Aegean coasts. Also, large-scale environmental and visual pollution in forests, as well as tourism and recreational facilities causing overcrowding, damages to essential ecological processes, bio-diversity and wildlife habitats.

Turkey has adhered to several international conventions in order to ensure economic, socio-cultural and environmental sustainability. Also, as discussed in this thesis, tourism needs simply the presence of nature. Nonetheless, since the beginning of the 1980s, the Tourism Encouragement Law's common policy to develop mass tourism in Turkey has considerably led to damage the natural environments. Over the last thirty years, state-owned forest lands along the Mediterranean and Aegean coasts are such natural resources that have eradicated and over-exploited to a greater degree through the development of large-scale, inward oriented, and exclusive tourism investments, such as holiday villages, individual hotels, daily-use recreational and sport facilities, as well as the second-home development in coastal resorts.

The most common model for tourism-oriented allocation of forest lands in Turkey corresponds to "private tourism on public land" described in **p.52:**

> "Arguably, it is likely to be most efficient, in that it combines the business skills of commercial tourism operators with the land management skills of protected area agencies." (Buckley, 2002)

In such partnership models, public lands in general and forest lands in specific are allocated to private sector enterpreneurs for tourism investments. However, there is a wide difference between the practices in Turkey and the definition above. The MCT, allocating public lands to tourism investors in Turkey, is a public agency whose main duty is to encourage tourism developments in contrast with the protected area agencies. In Turkey, there are several protection categories of natural resources such as state forests, national parks, nature parks, nature monuments, special environmental protection areas, natural sites etc. Multiple public agencies are responsible for planning, using and controlling these natural resources. However, Tourism Encouragement Law authorized the MCT alone for planning and allocation of lands and natural resources within the borders of Culture and Tourism Conservation and Development Regions and Tourism Centers. Although Article 6 of Tourism Encouragement Law mentions the protection of natural resources, its main objectives and most practices, due mainly to economic reasons, head towards increasing bed capacities and encouraging mass tourism at the risk of disregarding environmental protection. A public agency ensuring the coordination among the related Ministries, such as the Integrated Land Management Bureau (ILMB) in British Columbia, Canada (see **Figure 8**) could have both made sound leasehold decisions and performed sustainable development missions in an interdisciplinary environment. On the other hand, such an approach to public land management embraces all leasehold and freehold lands of a country. Not only public lands allocated to tourism but also those allocated to mining, agriculture, forestry, transportation etc. could be evaluated holistically within national, regional and local policies and plans.

As revealed in this thesis, behind the excessive and uncontrolled tourism developments in Turkey, there is a very narrow perspective to tourism planning and forest management driven by short-term income generating objectives. Since the onset of the 1980s, with the globalization and privatization policies, the governments

have pursued 'laissez-faire' policies in all sectors, including tourism, forestry and rural planning. Seeking to develop mass tourism by attracting national and international capital and investment, natural environment has been significantly become a scarce and valuable resource to be compromised and jeopardized. As Chapter 3 has revealed, the concepts of sustainable development, sustainable tourism and sustainable forest management have not been perceived sufficiently, and accepted widely in Turkey by public authorities at national, regional and local levels. Although some documents, such as legal arrangements and five-year development plans, mention these notions, the understanding and components of sustainability have not been introduced or successfully integrated into the policy, legal and institutional structures of both forest management and tourism planning in Turkey. That is to say, there is no national strategy developed on a sustainability approach integrating economic, socio-cultural and environmental dimensions of forest management and tourism development. This, in turn, leads to the undermining of preservation of essential ecological processes, protection of human heritage and bio-diversity, planning the use of forest lands and its resources to provide long-term economic liveliness and benefits for nations and localities, and thus to improve the quality of life of local communities in accordance with their values, needs and aspirations. As also revealed in Chapter 3, the lack of such a national strategy also brings about the absence of further legal documents, such as laws, by-laws and regulations, national, regional and local plans that encourage sustainable practices in forest management and forest land allocated for tourism purposes.

The conservation groups in Queensland, Australia propose "the development of regional leasehold plans" as a part of the six-step process indicated in **pp.61-62** of the thesis to develop an integrated and ecologically sustainable approach to leasehold management. They recommend Regional Leasehold Plans to include the following elements:

- "Identification of areas in each region with cultural and high conservation values through assessment of natural and cultural heritage significance, and assessment of the threats to these values.

- Assessment of the resilience to grazing of areas with pastoral production value.
- Identification of appropriate and sustainable uses for land other than grazing.
- Identification of areas which should be prioritised for rehabilitation.
- Refinement of state-wide criteria for ecologically sustainable production and conservation of natural and cultural heritage values.
- Integration of priorities identified in other regional processes, such as Regional Vegetation Management Plans, water catchment plans and natural resource management strategies, where appropriate." (QCC, 2002)

Except for some applications, tourism-oriented public land allocation processes are generally implemented at the local scale in Turkey. A coordination at the regional scale is needed. The development of regional leasehold plans and their integration with Regional Vegetation Management Plans, water catchment plans and natural resource management strategies might be beneficial for Turkey too. There are ongoing discussions on such regional processes in Turkey. Another regional process from Australia is Regional Forest Agreements (RFAs) signed between the Commonwealth and State Governments and mentioned in **p.60** of the thesis:

> "RFAs define how a region's forests are to be sustainably used, conserved and managed for 20 years. The Agreements provide certainty for forest-based industries, forest-dependent communities and conservation. They are the result of years of scientific study, consultation and negotiation covering a diverse range of interests." (AG, DAFF)

On the one hand, such a commitment between central and local governments of Turkey might ensure a mutual responsibility. On the other hand, such a detailed, scientific and long-term survey could contribute to the conservation of forests in terms of economic, socio-cultural and environmental sustainability. The developed countries such as Canada and Australia have generated comprehensive policies and systems in order to manage their public lands. Forest conservation and tourism development are treated as integrated parts of a public land management policy. However, public land allocation in Turkey is usually considered as an instrument for encouraging tourism developments.

The MCT of Turkey has recently abandoned or disregarded some applications ensuring to control tourist facilities and protect natural resources, such as site plan, architectural project and tree survey documents of the allocated lands submitted by the companies in pre-approval period. The lack of initial site plans and architectural projects, makes it impossible to monitor physical modifications on the land. As a result, the Ministry's control over tourist facilities has been reduced to the type, category and capacity changes indicated in Tourism Investment / Operation Certificates. On the other hand, the hotel project on Green Island, Australia, mentioned in **pp.53-54** of the thesis, represents a good example of a tree survey:

> "The survey tried to integrate the buildings with the existing natural forest by recording and classifying the trees according to species type, trunk diameter, overall height, condition (health) and status; demarcating small trees as conservation zones, planting approximately 6.000 plants representing 60 indigenous species, and limiting building heights according to the tree canopy." (Herbert and Busby, 1995)

Such detailed tree surveys were prepared and submitted in the early applications of Tourism Encouragement Law in Turkey too. However, tree surveys in the last two decades have consisted of drawings solely indicating the tree locations and lacked the necessary details and inputs for the design. Whether the trees located in the project phase were cut down or not has not been inspected later. Reviving site plan, architectural project and tree survey documents and putting them into action might produce benefits in creating tourist facilities and destinations respectful to and compatible with the natural resources and forests.

This thesis, after examining the extent to which the institutional, stakeholder, policy and legal dimensions of allocation of forest lands for tourism investments have integrated the notion and components of 'sustainability' in Turkey, investigates the case of BTC in Antalya to have an in-depth view about the problems generated at the local level in the process of allocating and using the public forest lands for the purpose of tourism. The example of BTC in Antalya is important as Belek, where was previously covered with a forest developed within 26 years and where is of great importance and value in environmental terms, illustrates the transformation of a

small humble forest village into a tourism center through a top-down approach. Chapter 4 has shown that 'sustainability' measures have not been sufficiently taken while allocating forest lands for the purpose of tourism in Belek; and underlines unbalanced outcomes of such a top-down development regarding the environmental, economic and socio-cultural sustainability. Consequently, an environment, mainly benefiting national and international large-scale developers and investors, and serving high-income and exclusive tourists and visitors, was developed at the expense of jeopardizing the present and future benefits of local communities, and the public interests in general.

BTC, with its capacity of 50.000 beds, all of which are five-star, and its attractiveness as an exclusive tourism destination, significantly contributes to national and local economy. However, tourism development in the area has brought about an over-dependence on tourism, while other sectors, such as agriculture and forestry, have not been supported for years and ultimately caused uncontrolled and unbalanced development in the region. Beside, increasing competitiveness in the area has started to reduce the contribution of tourism to local economy.

The tourism development in BTC has served for the benefit of a small exclusive group of tourists and visitors. For locality, although tourism has brought economic vitality to the area, by increasing production and consumption, generating new economic activities, especially in service sector, and providing better jobs and higher wages for some local residents, these changes have not benefited all residents. In addition, most of coastal and forested areas of their settlements have been rendered as inaccessible. This has led to social injustice and endangered public interest. On the other hand, a cultural change has been noted, and the local community has largely lost their traditional values.

Generally, tourism development is expected to raise environmental awareness. However, from the very beginning, tourism center in Belek, with the gigantic holiday villages, hotels and golf courses, has significantly destroyed forest lands, and endangered the ecological values and assets of the area. Also, the increasing

development of second homes (see **Table 7** and **Figure 30**) mainly triggered by the BTC development has resulted in extra pressure on forest lands. Artificial water systems of golf courses, overcrowding, solid wastes, water pollution and visual pollution have damaged natural resources, and caused new environmental problems. All these conversions have had negative effects on flora and fauna, especially marine turtles as an endangered species in the region.

BTC is a significant example for the development and negative impacts of golf tourism in Turkey. The facilities in the tourism center have served for especially richer clients from all over the world. One of the reasons for selecting Turkey as a reserve for the golf development is referred in **p.132** of the thesis:

> "Developed countries do not prefer to exploit their own natural resources for golf tourism due to its potential environmental hazards."

Golf tourism has particularly affected the integrity and density of the conservation forests in BTC. The transformation of these forests into golf courses could be observed in **Figures 34-37**. As a proper planning approach to golf tourism, environmental responsibility and considerations should be given greater priority and such investments should be directed from sensitive natural resources towards environmentally less vulnerable areas in Turkey.

Not only forests but also water resources of Turkey are over-exploited by golf tourism. According to the arguments in **p.131** and **pp.139-140** of the thesis, water consumption in golf courses emerges as a significant threat to sustainable development:

> "Estimates indicate that an 18-hole course consumes 3.000–5.000 cubic metres per day, which is enough to meet the daily consumption needs for 2.000 families or 15.000 individual Americans. The Worldwatch Institute makes an interesting and startling comparison: 9,5 million m^3 is the amount of water used, per day, to irrigate the world's golf courses; it is also the amount of water it would take, per day, to support 4,7 billion people at the United Nations daily minimum requirement, or over four-fifths of the world's estimated 2005 population. What confounds people even more is that so

> much of this water use occurs in countries or regions where water is an already scarce resource." (Wheeler and Nauright, 2006)

> "Antalya Office of Turkish Association for the Conservation of Nature (TACN / TTKDer) calculated that 100 golf courses shall need more than 660.000 tons water per day. This is simply evaluated as 'injustice'. In addition, they mention that NASA indicated Turkey is between the countries who have trouble about water resources in the next 40-50 years, 20% of our population lack healthy drinking water, we import agricultural products at a price of 2,5 billion USDs per year, desert conditions are dominant in Central Anatolia Region, thus golf means adding insult to injury for us." (AOTACN, 2005)

Moreover, **European Environment Agency** indicates that daily water consumption is 150 litres per capita in dwellings while this figure increases to 880 litres per capita in luxury tourism facilities:

> "Hotels, swimming pools and golf courses can put critical pressure on water resources, particularly in regions such as the Mediterranean where resources are scarce. Tourists typically consume around 300 litres (luxury tourism 880 litres) and generate 180 litres of wastewater per day. Tourism contributes about 7 % of pollution in the Mediterranean." (EEA, 2001)

According to the figures above, not only golf courses but also swimming pools and tourist accommodations consume much more water than dwellings in a country. This might threaten the sustainable development of countries especially having scarce water resources, such as Turkey.

BTC is not the sole example which shows the narrow and short-term perspective of tourism development in Turkey. There are many more coastal resort developments along the Mediterranean and Aegean coasts that have significantly damaged to natural environment, endangered the ecological balance and bio-diversity, and created uncontrolled urban environments which enforced social injustice and endangered public interest.

The key question here is what should be done to reverse this trend. It seems that 'sustainability' and 'sustainable development', wherever applicable, is one of the

answers to this question. In Turkey, a national strategy on a sustainable allocation, use and management of forest lands for the purpose of tourism, integrating economic, socio-cultural and environmental dimensions of forest management and tourism development, should be urgently developed in collaboration with the state agencies and universities. Necessary further legal arrangements should be made accordingly, and essential measures should be taken for sustainable development of both tourism and other sectors. Some pilot projects to become the examples for the future initiatives might be developed through the partnership of public, private, community and voluntary sectors to encourage sustainable practices in forest management and tourism planning. The role of universities and research institutes is crucial in these pilot projects. They may provide new, innovative solutions for sustainable strategy and policy developments, and practice.

In Turkey, one way of ensuring a healthy decision-making process is to establish a planning system that will provide coordination and cooperation among the state agencies at the national, regional and local levels for the forest use and management. Policy, legal and institutional mechanisms should be developed for the successful and efficient operation of such a planning system. In this sense, again work with the universities and the promotion of researches on the governance issues is of crucial importance. Such an institutional organization could assess the pros and cons of planning decisions better. In this way, the boundaries of the areas reserved for conservation and development could be drawn clearly. Apart from this, planning hierarchy should be re-described and respected by central and local governments.

Beside the necessary changes in the institutional level, the introduction of collaborative planning understanding is of great importance. Developing strong, flexible and dynamic partnerships among stakeholders (i.e., public and private sectors, NGOs and local communities) and continuous consultation with them will lead to more inclusive decision-making processes and thereby providing us with sustainable policy and strategy developments on the allocation of forest lands for tourism investments in Turkey. Necessary policy design specifically should be made for local community involvement, engagement and empowerment.

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APPENDIX A

NON-LEGALLY BINDING AUTHORITATIVE STATEMENT OF PRINCIPLES FOR A GLOBAL CONSENSUS ON THE MANAGEMENT, CONSERVATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF ALL TYPES OF FORESTS (THE FOREST PRINCIPLES)

Preamble

a. The subject of forests is related to the entire range of environmental and development issues and opportunities, including the right to socio-economic development on a sustainable basis.
b. The guiding objective of these principles is to contribute to the management, conservation and sustainable development of forests and to provide for their multiple and complementary functions and uses.
c. Forestry issues and opportunities should be examined in a holistic and balanced manner within the overall context of environment and development, taking into consideration the multiple functions and uses of forests, including traditional uses, and the likely economic and social stress when these uses are constrained or restricted, as well as the potential for development that sustainable forest management can offer.
d. These principles reflect a first global consensus on forests. In committing themselves to the prompt implementation of these principles, countries also decide to keep them under assessment for their adequacy with regard to further international cooperation on forest issues.
e. These principles should apply to all types of forests, both natural and planted, in all geographical regions and climatic zones, including austral, boreal, subtemperate, temperate, subtropical and tropical.
f. All types of forests embody complex and unique ecological processes which are the basis for their present and potential capacity to provide resources to satisfy human needs as well as environmental values, and as such their sound management and conservation is of concern to the Governments of the countries to which they belong and are of value to local communities and to the environment as a whole.
g. Forests are essential to economic development and the maintenance of all forms of life.
h. Recognizing that the responsibility for forest management, conservation and sustainable development is in many States allocated among federal/national, state/provincial and local levels of government, each State, in accordance

with its constitution and/or national legislation, should pursue these principles at the appropriate level of government.

Principles/Elements

1.
    a. States have, in accordance with the Charter of the United Nations and the principles of international law, the sovereign right to exploit their own resources pursuant to their own environmental policies and have the responsibility to ensure that activities within their jurisdiction or control do not cause damage to the environment of other States or of areas beyond the limits of national jurisdiction.
    b. The agreed full incremental cost of achieving benefits associated with forest conservation and sustainable development requires increased international cooperation and should be equitably shared by the international community.
2.
    a. States have the sovereign and inalienable right to utilize, manage and develop their forests in accordance with their development needs and level of socio-economic development and on the basis of national policies consistent with sustainable development and legislation, including the conversion of such areas for other uses within the overall socio-economic development plan and based on rational land-use policies.
    b. Forest resources and forest lands should be sustainably managed to meet the social, economic, ecological, cultural and spiritual needs of present and future generations. These needs are for forest products and services, such as wood and wood products, water, food, fodder, medicine, fuel, shelter, employment, recreation, habitats for wildlife, landscape diversity, carbon sinks and reservoirs, and for other forest products. Appropriate measures should be taken to protect forests against harmful effects of pollution, including air-borne pollution, fires, pests and diseases, in order to maintain their full multiple value.
    c. The provision of timely, reliable and accurate information on forests and forest ecosystems is essential for public understanding and informed decision-making and should be ensured.
    d. Governments should promote and provide opportunities for the participation of interested parties, including local communities and indigenous people, industries, labour, non-governmental organizations and individuals, forest dwellers and women, in the development, implementation and planning of national forest policies.
3.
    a. National policies and strategies should provide a framework for increased efforts, including the development and strengthening of institutions and programmes for the management, conservation and sustainable development of forests and forest lands.

b. International institutional arrangements, building on those organizations and mechanisms already in existence, as appropriate, should facilitate international cooperation in the field of forests.
c. All aspects of environmental protection and social and economic development as they relate to forests and forest lands should be integrated and comprehensive.

4. The vital role of all types of forests in maintaining the ecological processes and balance at the local, national, regional and global levels through, inter/alia, their role in protecting fragile ecosystems, watersheds and freshwater resources and as rich storehouses of biodiversity and biological resources and sources of genetic material for biotechnology products, as well as photosynthesis, should be recognized.
5.
    a. National forest policies should recognize and duly support the identity, culture and the rights of indigenous people, their communities and other communities and forest dwellers. Appropriate conditions should be promoted for these groups to enable them to have an economic stake in forest use, perform economic activities, and achieve and maintain cultural identity and social organization, as well as adequate levels of livelihood and well-being, through, inter alia, those land tenure arrangements which serve as incentives for the sustainable management of forests.
    b. The full participation of women in all aspects of the management, conservation and sustainable development of forests should be actively promoted.
6.
    a. All types of forests play an important role in meeting energy requirements through the provision of a renewable source of bio-energy, particularly in developing countries, and the demands for fuelwood for household and industrial needs should be met through sustainable forest management, afforestation and reforestation. To this end, the potential contribution of plantations of both indigenous and introduced species for the provision of both fuel and industrial wood should be recognized.
    b. National policies and programmes should take into account the relationship, where it exists, between the conservation, management and sustainable development of forests and all aspects related to the production, consumption, recycling and/or final disposal of forest products.
    c. Decisions taken on the management, conservation and sustainable development of forest resources should benefit, to the extent practicable, from a comprehensive assessment of economic and non-economic values of forest goods and services and of the environmental costs and benefits. The development and improvement of methodologies for such evaluations should be promoted.
    d. The role of planted forests and permanent agricultural crops as sustainable and environmentally sound sources of renewable energy and industrial raw material should be recognized, enhanced and

promoted. Their contribution to the maintenance of ecological processes, to offsetting pressure on primary/old-growth forest and to providing regional employment and development with the adequate involvement of local inhabitants should be recognized and enhanced.

e. Natural forests also constitute a source of goods and services, and their conservation, sustainable management and use should be promoted.

7.

a. Efforts should be made to promote a supportive international economic climate conducive to sustained and environmentally sound development of forests in all countries, which include, inter/alia, the promotion of sustainable patterns of production and consumption, the eradication of poverty and the promotion of food security.
b. Specific financial resources should be provided to developing countries with significant forest areas which establish programmes for the conservation of forests including protected natural forest areas. These resources should be directed notably to economic sectors which would stimulate economic and social substitution activities.

8.

a. Efforts should be undertaken towards the greening of the world. All countries, notably developed countries, should take positive and transparent action towards reforestation, afforestation and forest conservation, as appropriate.
b. Efforts to maintain and increase forest cover and forest productivity should be undertaken in ecologically, economically and socially sound ways through the rehabilitation, reforestation and re-establishment of trees and forests on unproductive, degraded and deforested lands, as well as through the management of existing forest resources.
c. The implementation of national policies and programmes aimed at forest management, conservation and sustainable development, particularly in developing countries, should be supported by international financial and technical cooperation, including through the private sector, where appropriate.
d. Sustainable forest management and use should be carried out in accordance with national development policies and priorities and on the basis of environmentally sound national guidelines. In the formulation of such guidelines, account should be taken, as appropriate and if applicable, of relevant internationally agreed methodologies and criteria.
e. Forest management should be integrated with management of adjacent areas so as to maintain ecological balance and sustainable productivity.
f. National policies and/or legislation aimed at management, conservation and sustainable development of forests should include the protection of ecologically viable representative or unique examples of forests, including primary/old-growth forests, cultural,

spiritual, historical, religious and other unique and valued forests of national importance.

g. Access to biological resources, including genetic material, shall be with due regard to the sovereign rights of the countries where the forests are located and to the sharing on mutually agreed terms of technology and profits from biotechnology products that are derived from these resources.
h. National policies should ensure that environmental impact assessments should be carried out where actions are likely to have significant adverse impacts on important forest resources, and where such actions are subject to a decision of a competent national authority.

9.

a. The efforts of developing countries to strengthen the management, conservation and sustainable development of their forest resources should be supported by the international community, taking into account the importance of redressing external indebtedness, particularly where aggravated by the net transfer of resources to developed countries, as well as the problem of achieving at least the replacement value of forests through improved market access for forest products, especially processed products. In this respect, special attention should also be given to the countries undergoing the process of transition to market economies.
b. The problems that hinder efforts to attain the conservation and sustainable use of forest resources and that stem from the lack of alternative options available to local communities, in particular the urban poor and poor rural populations who are economically and socially dependent on forests and forest resources, should be addressed by Governments and the international community.
c. National policy formulation with respect to all types of forests should take account of the pressures and demands imposed on forest ecosystems and resources from influencing factors outside the forest sector, and intersectoral means of dealing with these pressures and demands should be sought.

10. New and additional financial resources should be provided to developing countries to enable them to sustainably manage, conserve and develop their forest resources, including through afforestation, reforestation and combating deforestation and forest and land degradation.
11. In order to enable, in particular, developing countries to enhance their endogenous capacity and to better manage, conserve and develop their forest resources, the access to and transfer of environmentally sound technologies and corresponding know-how on favourable terms, including on concessional and preferential terms, as mutually agreed, in accordance with the relevant provisions of Agenda 21, should be promoted, facilitated and financed, as appropriate.
12.

a. Scientific research, forest inventories and assessments carried out by national institutions which take into account, where relevant,

biological, physical, social and economic variables, as well as technological development and its application in the field of sustainable forest management, conservation and development, should be strengthened through effective modalities, including international cooperation. In this context, attention should also be given to research and development of sustainably harvested non-wood products.

b. National and, where appropriate, regional and international institutional capabilities in education, training, science, technology, economics, anthropology and social aspects of forests and forest management are essential to the conservation and sustainable development of forests and should be strengthened.
c. International exchange of information on the results of forest and forest management research and development should be enhanced and broadened, as appropriate, making full use of education and training institutions, including those in the private sector.
d. Appropriate indigenous capacity and local knowledge regarding the conservation and sustainable development of forests should, through institutional and financial support and in collaboration with the people in the local communities concerned, be recognized, respected, recorded, developed and, as appropriate, introduced in the implementation of programmes. Benefits arising from the utilization of indigenous knowledge should therefore be equitably shared with such people.

13.

a. Trade in forest products should be based on non-discriminatory and multilaterally agreed rules and procedures consistent with international trade law and practices. In this context, open and free international trade in forest products should be facilitated.
b. Reduction or removal of tariff barriers and impediments to the provision of better market access and better prices for higher value-added forest products and their local processing should be encouraged to enable producer countries to better conserve and manage their renewable forest resources.
c. Incorporation of environmental costs and benefits into market forces and mechanisms, in order to achieve forest conservation and sustainable development, should be encouraged both domestically and internationally.
d. Forest conservation and sustainable development policies should be integrated with economic, trade and other relevant policies.
e. Fiscal, trade, industrial, transportation and other policies and practices that may lead to forest degradation should be avoided. Adequate policies, aimed at management, conservation and sustainable development of forests, including, where appropriate, incentives, should be encouraged.

14. Unilateral measures, incompatible with international obligations or agreements, to restrict and/or ban international trade in timber or other forest products should be removed or avoided, in order to attain long-term sustainable forest management.

15. Pollutants, particularly air-borne pollutants, including those responsible for acidic deposition, that are harmful to the health of forest ecosystems at the local, national, regional and global levels should be controlled.

APPENDIX B

Table 8
PUBLIC LAND ALLOCATION ANNOUNCEMENTS
IN BELEK TOURISM CENTER, ANTALYA

MEVKİİ	PARSEL	YÜZÖLÇÜM (M2)	KULLANIM TÜRÜ	KAPASİTE	İLAN NO
	1		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	2		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	3		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	4		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	5		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	6		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	7		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	8		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	9		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	10		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	11		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	12		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	13		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/1
	1		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/2
	2		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/2

Table 8 (continued)

MEVKİİ	PARSEL	YÜZÖLÇÜM (M2)	KULLANIM TÜRÜ	KAPASİTE	İLAN NO
	4		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/2
	9		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/2
	13		KONAKLAMA TESİSİ	500	1987/2
Belek	Özel Parsel No: 1A	-	Konaklama Tesisi	650	1989/1
Belek	Özel Parsel No: 1B	-	Konaklama Tesisi	650	1989/1
Belek	Özel Parsel No: 4B	-	Konaklama Tesisi	650	1989/1
Belek	Özel Parsel No: 9A	-	Konaklama Tesisi	650	1989/1
Belek	Özel Parsel No: 13A	-	Konaklama Tesisi	650	1989/1
Belek	Özel Parsel No: 13B	-	Konaklama Tesisi	650	1989/1
Acısu	-	-	Kompleks (Konaklama Tesisi+Uygulama Eğitim Oteli+Kamping)	650	1989/1
Belek	1 No'lu Golf Sahası	Golf Tesisleri sahasının yaklaşık yüzölçümü: 100 ha.	Golf Alanı+Golf Klüp	18 Delikli Golf Alanı+Golf Klüp	1990/1
Belek	2 No'lu Golf Sahası	Golf Tesisleri sahasının yaklaşık yüzölçümü: 200 ha.	Golf Alanı+Golf Klüp	54 Delikli Golf Alanı+Golf Klüp	1990/1
Acısu	4	-	Tatil Köyü	650	1990/2
Acısu	5	-	Uygulama Oteli ve Turizm Eğitim Merkezi	650	1990/2
Acısu	6	-	Tatil Köyü	650	1990/2
Acısu	-	Golf Tesisleri sahasının yaklaşık yüzölçümü: 200 ha.	Golf Alanı+Golf Klüp	18 Delikli Golf Alanı+Golf Klüp	1990/2
Belek	-	3 ha	Turizm Amaçlı Sağlık Merkezi	5000 m2 kapalı inşaat alanı	1991/1
Belek	13	527.500,00	Eğlence Merkezi	15.825 m2 kapalı inşaat alanı 511.675 m2 düzenlenecek açık alan	1991/1
Belek	13	527.500,00	Eğlence Merkezi	15.825 m2 kapalı inşaat alanı 511.675 m2 düzenlenecek açık alan	1991/2
Belek	-	3 ha.	Turizm Amaçlı Sağlık Merkezi	-	1991/2

Table 8 (continued)

MEVKİİ	PARSEL	YÜZÖLÇÜM (M2)	KULLANIM TÜRÜ	KAPASİTE	İLAN NO
Belek	-	3 ha.	Turizm Amaçlı Sağlık Tesisi	5.000 m2 kapalı inşaat alanı	1993/1
Belek	-	3 ha.	Turizm Amaçlı Sağlık Tesisi	5.000 m2 kapalı inşaat alanı	1994/1
Belek	-	13 ha. (91.000 m2 açık alan düzenlemesi)	Turizm Amaçlı Kongre ve Sergi Merkezi	39.000 m2 max. 20.000 m2 min kapalı inşaat alanı	1994/1
Belek	-	3 ha.	Turizm Amaçlı Sağlık Tesisi	5.000 m2 kapalı inşaat alanı	1994/2
Belek	-	13 ha. (91.000 m2 açık alan düzenlemesi)	Turizm Amaçlı Kongre ve Sergi Merkezi	39.000 m2 max. 20.000 m2 min kapalı inşaat alanı	1994/2
Belek	-	3 ha.	Turizm Amaçlı Sağlık Tesisi	5.000 m2 kapalı inşaat alanı	1995/1
Belek	-	13 ha. (91.000 m2 açık alan düzenlemesi)	Turizm Amaçlı Kongre ve Sergi Merkezi	39.000 m2 max. 20.000 m2 min kapalı inşaat alanı	1995/1
Üçüncü Kum Tepesi	-	Yaklaşık 142 hektar	Gol Alanı+ Golf Klübü	36 delikli golf alanı	1995/2
Üçüncü Kum Tepesi	-	65,000 m2	Turizm Yerleşim Alanı	650 Yatak	1995/2
Kadriye	-	Yaklaşık 63 hektar	Turizm Kompleksi	Kapalı İnşaat Alanı: max. 95.000 m2	1995/2
Belek	-	13 ha. (91.000 m2 açık alan düzenlemesi)	Turizm Amaçlı Kongre ve Sergi Merkezi	39.000 m2 max. 20.000 m2 min kapalı inşaat alanı	1995/2
İskele		130.000	Turizm Amaçlı Kongre ve Sergi Merkezi	39.000 m² kapalı inş alanı	1997/1
İskele		130.000	Turizm Amaçlı Kongre ve Sergi Merkezi	39.000 m² kapalı inş alanı	1997/2
Beşöz Deresi			Yat Limanı	300 yat	1997/2
İskele		130.000	Turizm Amaçlı Kongre ve Sergi Merkezi	39.000 m² kapalı inş alanı	1997/3
İleribaşı	1 ÖP	100.000	Turistik Tesis	850 yatak	1997/3
İleribaşı	2 ÖP	100.000	Turistik Tesis	850 yatak	1997/3
İleribaşı	3 ÖP	100.000	Turistik Tesis	850 yatak	1997/3
İleribaşı	4 ÖP	50.000	Turistik Tesis	450 yatak	1997/3
İleribaşı	5 ÖP	50.000	Turistik Tesis	450 yatak	1997/3
İskele		105.000	Turizm Amaçlı Kongre ve Sergi Merkezi	31.500 m² kapalı inş. Alanı	2004/1

Table 8 (continued)

MEVKİİ	PARSEL	YÜZÖLÇÜM (M2)	KULLANIM TÜRÜ	KAPASİTE	İLAN NO
İskele		80.000	Turizm Amaçlı Sağlık Tesisi Alanı	40.000 m² kapalı inş. Alanı	2004/1
İleribaşı İskele	1 ÖP	90.000	Turistik Tesis Alanı	1.200 yatak	2004/1
İleribaşı İskele	2 ÖP	90.000	Turistik Tesis Alanı	1.200 yatak	2004/1
İleribaşı İskele	3 ÖP	90.000	Turistik Tesis Alanı	1.200 yatak	2004/1
İleribaşı İskele	4 ÖP	90.000	Turistik Tesis Alanı	1.200 yatak	2004/1
İleribaşı İskele	5 ÖP	90.000	Turistik Tesis Alanı	1.200 yatak	2004/1
İleribaşı İskele	G4	610.000	Golf ve Konaklama Alanı	520 yatak 18 delik golf	2004/1
İleribaşı İskele	G7	1.150.000	Golf ve Konaklama Alanı	1.200 yatak 27 delik golf	2004/1
İleribaşı İskele	G8	1.500.000	Golf ve Konaklama Alanı	520 yatak 27 delik golf	2004/1
İleribaşı İskele	G9	1.500.000	Golf ve Konaklama Alanı	520 yatak 27 delik golf	2004/1
İleribaşı İskele	G10	1.100.000	Golf ve Konaklama Alanı	520 yatak 27 delik golf	2004/1
İskele	6 ÖP	62.027	Turizm Tesis Alanı	750 yatak	2005/1
İskele		70.000	Turizm Amaçlı Sağlık Merkezi	35.000 m² kapalı inş. Alanı	2005/1
İskele		70.000	Turizm Amaçlı Sağlık Alanı	350 yatak 5.000 m² kapalı inş. Alanı	2006/1
	1 ÖP	40.450	Turizm Amaçlı Spor Kompleksi	125 yatak 2.023 m² kapalı inş. Alanı	2006/5

Source: RT, MCT Archives

APPENDIX C

Table 9
PUBLIC LAND ALLOCATIONS
IN BELEK TOURISM CENTER, ANTALYA

FİRMA ADI	MEVKİİ	ADA/ PARSEL NO	YÜZÖLÇÜM (M2)	ÖN İZİN TARİHİ	KESİN TAHSİS TARİHİ	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ TÜR VE SINIFI	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ KAPASİTESİ
DÖRTEL TEKSTİL ÖRME SAN.TİC.A.Ş.	3. KUM TEPESİ	957	102472	05.04.1988	11.05.1989	5 YILDIZLI OTEL+5 YILDIZLI TATİL KÖYÜ	670+480
UTE HOLDİNG A.Ş.	İSKELE	360	99938	03.08.1987	15.06.1989	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	846
TEK TUR.YAT.VE TİC. A.Ş.	ÇAMLIK	962	92982	03.08.1987	15.06.1989	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1000
TAT TURİZM İNŞ.SAN.VE TİC.A.Ş.	ÇAMLIK	958	101830	05.04.1988	30.06.1989	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	834 YATAK
BEYTUR GAYRİMENKUL TUR. İNŞ. SAN. VE TİC. A.Ş.	ÜÇÜNCÜ KUMTEPESİ	960	100853	05.04.1988	30.06.1989	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	850
IC ANTBEL ANTALYA BELEK TUR. YAT. A.Ş.	ÇAMLIK	959	92940	03.08.1987	18.07.1989	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1000
SUNTER TURİZM A.Ş.	İSKELE	361	91980	05.04.1988	01.11.1989	4 YILDIZLI OTEL	982
ÇALIŞKAN KARDEŞLER TUR.İŞL.TİC. A.Ş.	TAŞLIBURUN	998 (ÖP 9)	90102	05.04.1988	29.12.1989	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1200
FORZA TUR. İŞL. SAN. VE TİC. A.Ş.	TAŞLIBURUN	966	87562	03.08.1987	29.12.1989	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1000

Table 9 (continued)

FİRMA ADI	MEVKİİ	ADA/ PARSEL NO	YÜZÖLÇÜM (M2)	ÖN İZİN TARİHİ	KESİN TAHSİS TARİHİ	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ TÜR VE SINIFI	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ KAPASİTESİ
TURCOTEL TURİZM A.Ş.	İSKELE	359	197125	03.08.1987	13.04.1990	5 YILDIZLI TATİLKÖYÜ-4 YILDIZLI OTEL-5 YILDIZLI OTEL	747-354-586
ERBERK TURİZM İŞLETMELERİ A.Ş.	ACISU	393	108770	03.11.1989	15.06.1990	4 YILDIZLI OTEL	1176
SİMTAN TURİZM TİCARET VE SANAYİ A.Ş.	TAŞLIBURUN	1010	90511	03.09.1987	19.07.1990	5 YILDIZLI TATİL KÖYÜ+ 3 YILDIZLI OTEL	867+333
SERİK BELEDİYE BAŞKANLIĞI	İLERİBAŞI	415	83034	23.10.1986	27.07.1990	KAMPİNG	186 ÜNİTE
AK-ÖZ TUR.İNŞ.SAN. VE TİC.A.Ş.	ÇAMLIK	1012	113120	19.10.1989	04.10.1990	5 YILDIZLI TATİL KÖYÜ+5 YILDIZLI OTEL	402+598
SAN-TUR TURİZM A.Ş.	3. KUM TEPESİ	987	121612	19.10.1989	04.10.1990	5 YILDIZLI TATİL KÖYÜ+4 YILDIZLI OTEL	670+330
KYBELE TUR.SAN.VE TİC.A.Ş.	3. KUM TEPESİ	971	124688	19.10.1989	19.11.1990	5 YILDIZLI TATİL KÖYÜ	836
DİANA OTEL. YAT. İŞL.A.Ş.	İSKELE	395	79650	19.10.1989	14.01.1991	5 YILDIZLI TATİL KÖYÜ	970
AYDINER İNŞ.A.Ş.	ACISU	406	126989	01.03.1991	20.05.1992	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	890
BELEK GOLF KLÜBÜ TUR.İNŞ.SAN. A.Ş.	ÜÇÜNCÜ KUMTEPESİ	1067 (ÖP G2)	916784	28.12.1990	11.11.1992	GOLF TESİSİ	18 DELİK İŞLETMEDE 9 DELİK YATIRIMDA
ÖZALTIN İNŞ. TİC. VE SAN. A.Ş.	ACISU	404 (G5)	892731	28.02.1991	07.05.1993	5 YILDIZLI OTEL+GOLF TESİSİ	1400 YATAK + 27 DELİK+296 PERS.LOJ.

Table 9 (continued)

FİRMA ADI	MEVKİİ	ADA/ PARSEL NO	YÜZÖLÇÜM (M2)	ÖN İZİN TARİHİ	KESİN TAHSİS TARİHİ	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ TÜR VE SINIFI	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ KAPASİTESİ
ROYAL BELEK TURİZM A.Ş.	3. KUM TEPESİ	G1	825721	21.05.1991	21.06.1994	GOLF TESİSİ	18 DELİK
HERİŞ SERAMİK VE TUR. SAN. A.Ş.		410	76375	10.07.1995	19.12.1995	5 YILDIZLI TATİL KÖYÜ	1000
TUTİS TUR.TİC.SEY. A.Ş.	ACISU	391	70702	11.07.1995	26.04.1996	5 YILDIZLI TATİL KÖYÜ+5 YILDIZLI OTEL	468+528
ETA TUR. YAT. VE İŞL. A.Ş.	ACISU	407 (G6)	796531	12.07.1995	04.12.1996	5 YILDIZLI OTEL+GOLF TESİSİ	966 YATAK + 18 DELİK
KAYA TUR. TES. TİTREYENGÖL OTEL A.Ş.	ÜÇÜNCÜ KUM TEPESİ	1307 - 1308 - G3	918653	01.11.1991	13.12.1996	TURİZM KOMPLEKSİ	1993
BEYTUR TURİZM İNŞ.SAN. VE TİC. A.Ş.	ÜÇÜNCÜ KUM TEPESİ	968	105355	31.05.1996	03.01.1997	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1000
KADRİYE BELEDİYE BAŞKANLIĞI	AKKINLAR	1522	124788	22.10.1996	08.05.1997	GÜNÜBİRLİK	260 KİŞİ
ANTALYA GOLF KULÜBÜ TUR.A.Ş.	ÜÇÜNCÜ KUM TEPESİ	1428	1247967	03.06.1996	02.10.1997	GOLF TESİSİ	417 YATAK+36 DELİK
HERİŞ SERAMİK VE TUR. SAN. A.Ş.		491	37003		10.09.1998		
GÜROLTEKS TEKSTİL TUR. TİC.SAN.A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	467	75889	19.03.1998	08.10.1998	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	744
MUNA TUR. İNŞ. TAAH.TİC.VE SAN.A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	487 (ESKİ 409) (3 ÖP)	59589	19.03.1998	09.10.1998	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	750 YATAK

Table 9 (continued)

FİRMA ADI	MEVKİİ	ADA/ PARSEL NO	YÜZÖLÇÜM (M2)	ÖN İZİN TARİHİ	KESİN TAHSİS TARİHİ	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ TÜR VE SINIFI	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ KAPASİTESİ
SİMTAN TURİZM TİCARET VE SANAYİ A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	8ÖP	50000	19.03.1998	02.12.1998	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	648
YAZICI DEMİR ÇELİK SAN. VE TUR. TİC. A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	437	50816	19.03.1998	03.12.1998	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	750
ÖZALTIN İNŞ. TİC. VE SAN. A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	422	51227	19.12.1998	28.12.1998	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	550
AK-ÖZ TUR.İNŞ.SAN. VE TİC.A.Ş.	ÇAMLIK	1427	47344		04.06.1999		
TURKA OTELCİLİK TUR. VE TİC.A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	434	57638	19.03.1998	16.09.1999	5 YILDIZLI TATİL KÖYÜ	735
YAZ TUR.SAN. VE TİC.A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	428	54164	19.03.1998	21.12.1999	4 YILDIZLI OTEL	650
ÖZALTIN İNŞ. TİC. VE SAN. A.Ş.	ACISU	470 (G4)	451343	06.10.1999	07.02.2000		
YAZICI DEMİR ÇELİK SAN. VE TUR. TİC. A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	420	14130		19.04.2000		
TURKA OTELCİLİK TUR. VE TİC.A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	435	56655	19.03.1998	21.06.2001	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	650
ANTALYA GOLF KULÜBÜ TUR.A.Ş.	ÜÇÜNCÜ KUM TEPESİ		2191	14.03.2003	10.09.2003		
ANTALYA GOLF KULÜBÜ TUR.A.Ş.	ÜÇÜNCÜ KUM TEPESİ	1506	8915	07.09.2004	05.11.2004		
AK-ÖZ TUR.İNŞ.SAN. VE TİC.A.Ş.	ÇAMLIK		9219	08.11.2004	14.01.2005		
ÖZKAR İNŞ. SAN. VE TİC.A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	1512	97000	12.08.2004	09.05.2005	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1178 YATAK

Table 9 (continued)

FİRMA ADI	MEVKİİ	ADA/ PARSEL NO	YÜZÖLÇÜM (M2)	ÖN İZİN TARİHİ	KESİN TAHSİS TARİHİ	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ TÜR VE SINIFI	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ KAPASİTESİ
TG OTELCİLİK İNŞ. VE TUR. İŞL. A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	478	93000	13.08.2004	20.06.2005	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1000+200 PERS.
AKTAY TUR. YAT. VE TİC. A.Ş.	İSKELE	480	90150	13.08.2004	24.06.2005	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1200
İÇKALETUR. İNŞ. SAN. TAAH. VE TİC. A.Ş.	İSKELE	477(4 ÖP)	90100	12.08.2004	24.06.2005	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1000 YATAK
BATA TUR. TİC. A.Ş.	İSKELE	476(2 ÖP)	90100	13.08.2004	24.06.2005	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1000 YATAK
TELERKO KABLO PLS. VE TUR. SAN. A.Ş.	İLERİBAŞI	G9 ÖP	1410000	13.08.2004	20.07.2005	GOLF 5* OTEL	36 DELİKLİ GOLF 1200 YATAK
CARYA TUR. YAT. A.Ş.	ÇAMLIK	1518 (G10)	965558	14.10.2004	18.08.2005	5 YILDIZLI OTEL+GOLF TESİSİ	27 DELİK + 420 YATAK
YAZICI DEMİR ÇELİK SAN. VE TUR. TİC. A.Ş.	İSKELE	484 (G8)	1410000	13.04.2004	25.08.2005	5 YILDIZLI OTEL+GOLF TESİSİ	1200 YATAK+27 DELİK
ÖZALTIN İNŞ. TİC. VE SAN. A.Ş.	İSKELE	485	104904	16.08.2004	10.10.2005	KONGRE VE SERGİ MERKEZİ	31.500 (KAP. AL) +73.404 (AÇ. AL.)
BELEK BELEDİYE BAŞKANLIĞI	İLERİBAŞI	417	95098	29.06.2005	06.01.2006	GÜNÜBİRLİK TESİS	750 KİŞİLİK
MAGÖN TUR. İNŞ. TİC. VE SAN. A.Ş.	İSKELE	486 (G7)	1040500	19.04.2005	23.01.2006	5 YILDIZLI OTEL+GOLF TESİSİ	1000+27 DELİK
ERSOY OTEL. İNŞ. VE TUR. İŞL. A.Ş.	İSKELE	489	62027		14.03.2006	5 YILDIZLI OTEL	1175
ERSOY OTEL. İNŞ. VE TUR. İŞL. A.Ş.	İSKELE		31013		10.05.2006	4 YILDIZLI OTEL	

Table 9 (continued)

FİRMA ADI	MEVKİİ	ADA/ PARSEL NO	YÜZÖLÇÜM (M2)	ÖN İZİN TARİHİ	KESİN TAHSİS TARİHİ	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ TÜR VE SINIFI	TESİSİN BELGEDEKİ KAPASİTESİ
ÇALIŞKAN KARDEŞLER TUR.İŞL.TİC. A.Ş.	TAŞLIBURUN	998 (ÖP 9)	45051	25.08.2005	19.07.2006		
FORZA TUR. İŞL. SAN. VE TİC. A.Ş.	TAŞLIBURUN		44171	29.04.2005	19.07.2006	14.07.2005	
BETUYAB-BELEK TURİZM YATIRIMCILARI BİRLİĞİ	ACISU		630000	04.06.1996	12.06.2009	TURİZM KOMPLEKSİ	500
YAZICI DEMİR ÇELİK SAN. VE TUR. TİC. A.Ş.	İSKELE		70000	13.11.2008		5 YILDIZLI OTEL+SAĞLIK TESİSİ	350+5.000M2 KAPALI ALAN

Source: RT, MCT Archives

APPENDIX D

GLOSSARY

Aboriginal Australians:	Avcı/toplayıcı Avustralya yerlileri
Aboriginal peoples:	Bir ülkenin tüm yerli halkları (Kanada'da First Nations, Inuit ve Metis'den oluşur)
Agreement:	Sözleşme
Agro-forestry:	Tarımsal-ormancılık
Allocate:	Tahsis etmek
Amnesty:	Genel af
Anticipate:	Tahmin etmek, Kestirmek
Article:	Madde
Auberge:	Kır oteli, Han, Pansiyon, Öğrenci yurdu
Auction:	Müzayede
Backcountry tourism:	Kırsal turizm
Ballot:	Oylama, kura
Betterment:	Şerefiye
Bid:	İhale, Açık artırma
Bind:	Bağlamak
Chalet:	Dağ evi
Clause:	Hüküm
Clause:	Bent
Clemency:	Özel af
Combination:	Tevhid
Come into force:	Yürürlüğe girmek
Common interest:	Kamu yararı
Common property:	Kamu taşınmazı
Commonwealth:	Devlet

Conservation forest:	Muhafaza ormanı
Conservation-use balance:	Koruma-kullanma dengesi
Constitutional Court:	Anayasa Mahkemesi
Contract:	Sözleşme
Covenant:	Sözleşme
Crown land:	Kamu mülkiyeti ve yönetimindeki arazi
Day visitor area:	Günübirlik alan-G
Day visitor facility:	Günübirlik tesis
Decree of annulment:	İptal kararı
Easement right:	İrtifak hakkı
Enact:	Yasalaştırmak
Estate:	Taşınmaz
Executive power:	Yürütme
Final allocation:	Kesin tahsis
First Nations:	Status ve non-status Kanada yerlileri
Freehold:	Zamana bağlı olmayan tahsis, Satın alınmış, Satın alınmış mal
Freeholder:	Mülk sahibi
Golf course:	Golf sahası
Golf resort:	Golf tesisi
Government:	İdare, Devlet, Hükümet
Grant:	Vermek, Onaylamak, Bahşetmek
Hostel:	Kır oteli, Han, Pansiyon, Öğrenci yurdu
Implementation plan:	İmar planı
Indigenous peoples:	Yerli halklar
Individual:	Gerçek kişi
Initial authorization:	Ön izin
Inn:	Kır oteli, Han, Pansiyon, Öğrenci yurdu
Inuit:	Arktik Kanada yerlileri
Item:	Fıkra
Juridical power:	Yargı

Land:	Arazi
Land exchange:	Takas, Trampa
Land tenure system:	Arazi mülkiyet sistemi
Landscape:	Kırsal arazi
Lease:	Kiralama, Kiralamak, Kira sözleşmesi
Leased land:	Tahsisli arazi
Leasehold:	Zamana bağlı tahsis, Kiralanmış, Kiralanmış mal
Leasehold estate:	Tapuya ayni hak olarak tescil olunan kira münasebeti, Tahsisli taşınmaz
Leasehold land:	Tahsisli arazi
Leaseholder:	Kiracı
Legal arrangement:	Yasal düzenleme
Legal entity:	Tüzel kişi
Legislative power:	Yasama
Lessee:	Kiracı
Lessor:	Kiraya veren
Letter of guarantee:	Teminat mektubu
Letter of indemnification:	Teminat mektubu
Letter of security:	Teminat mektubu
Lodge / Lodging:	Kır oteli, Han, Pansiyon, Öğrenci yurdu
Make law:	(Yasa) çıkarmak
Master plan:	İmar planı
Metis:	Kanada yerlileri ve Avrupalıların melezleri
Motel:	Road house
Municipality:	Belediye
Nation:	Devlet
Native title:	Mevzuatta yerlilere ayrıcalıklar tanıyan tapu
Owner:	Malik
Pastoral / Pasture land:	Mera
Perpetual:	Daimi

Pre-Approval:	Ön izin
Pre-Permission:	Ön izin
Property:	Taşınmaz
Proprietor:	Malik
Province:	Eyalet
Provision:	Hüküm
Public interest:	Kamu yararı
Public land, Common land:	Kamu arazisi
Public property:	Kamu taşınmazı
Public welfare:	Kamu yararı
Rangelends:	Ormanlık olarak nitelendirilmeyen ve başka bir arazi kullanımına ayrılmamış; doğal otlak, savana, çalılık, çöl, tundra, dağlık alan, bataklık ve çayırlardan oluşan araziler
Real estate:	Taşınmaz mal
Real property:	Taşınmaz mal
Reason:	Gerekçe
Region:	Bölge
Resort destination:	Tatil kenti
Resort municipality:	Tatil kenti
Resort town:	Tatil kenti
Restriction:	Yasak
Right of disposition:	Tasarruf hakkı
Rule:	Kural
Sale:	Satış, Satmak
Ski resort:	Kayak merkezi
Specification:	Şartname
State:	Eyalet
State land:	Devlet arazisi
State property:	Devlet taşınmazı
Stipulate:	Öngörmek, Şartları belirlemek
Subdivision:	İfraz
Sublet:	Devren kiraya vermek, İşletmeyi

	devretmek
Sub-region development plan:	Çevre düzeni planı
Superficies:	Üst hakkı
Surface right:	Üst hakkı
Surrender:	İptal etmek
Suspension of execution:	Yürütmenin durdurulması
Tenant:	Kiracı
Tender:	İhale, Açık artırma
Tenure:	Tasarruf hakkı, Mülkiyet
Terminate:	Feshetmek
Title:	Tapu
Title Deed:	Tapu Senedi
Torres Strait Islanders:	Queensland'deki Torres Strait Adalarının yerlileri
Total investment cost / value:	Toplam yatırım maliyeti
Tourism Encouragement Law:	Turizm Teşvik Kanunu
Tourism enterprise:	Turizm girişimi
Tourism investment:	Turizm yatırımı
Tourism Investment Certificate / License:	Turizm Yatırımı Belgesi
Tourism Operation Certificate / License:	Turizm İşletmesi Belgesi
Tourist accommodation (facility):	Turizm konaklama tesisi
Tourist accommodation area:	Turizm tesis alanı-TTA
Tourist facility:	Turizm tesisi
Transfer:	Devretmek
Trust land:	Kayyum/yediemin tarafından yönetilen arazi
Trustee:	Kayyum, Yediemin
Unimproved value:	Üzerinde herhangi bir yapı olmadığı varsayılan bir parselin tahmini satış bedeli
Unit cost:	Birim maliyet
Vested right:	Müktesep hak
Withdraw:	Geri çekilmek, vazgeçmek